DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 296 162 CE 050 460

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TITLE Leadership Style and Team Process: A Comparison of the Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership. Training and Development Research Center Project Number Twenty-Five.

INSTITUTION Minnesota Univ., St. Paul. Dept. of Vocational and Technical Education.

PUB DATE Jun 88

NOTE 111p.

PUB TYPE Book/Product Reviews (072)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS Adult Education; Comparative Analysis; *Group Dynamics; *Leadership Styles; *Leadership Training; Management Development; *Teamwork

IDENTIFIERS *Hersey Blanchard Situational Leadership Model; *Managerial Grid

ABSTRACT

This monograph identifies literature on human systems developed from the primary constructs of "task" and of "maintenance" or "relationship." It reviews definitions of leadership and team process and the use of the primary constructs in leadership literature and in team process literature. Then, the monograph systematically reviews and compares two frameworks developed on the balance of task and maintenance or relationship--the Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1978) and Situational Leadership (Hersey and Blanchad, 1982). Each review includes an overview and sections on purpose, constructs with anticipated results, related concepts, validity, recent writings, research and results, critiques in the literature, and a concluding critique. The conceptual analysis identifies questions of construct validity and invites further development of theory based on the constructs "task" and "maintenance." The monograph concludes with a summary, a chart comparison of the Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership frameworks, and a 176-item reference list. (YLB)

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TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH CENTER

Project Number Twenty-Five

LEADERSHIP STYLE AND TEAM PROCESS: A COMPARISON OF THE MANAGERIAL GRID AND SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Faye Caskey
June 1988

university of minnesota
DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION • ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA

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LEADERSHIP STYLE AND TEAM PROCESS: A COMPARISON OF THE MANAGERIAL GRID AND SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

This monograph (a) identifies literatures of human systems developed from the primary constructs Task and Maintenance or Relationship [1], (b) reviews definitions of leadership and team process and the use of the primary constructs in leadership literature and in team process literature, and (c) systematically reviews and compares two frameworks developed on the balance of Task and Maintenance or Relationship, the Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership. The monograph concludes with a summary and a chart Comparison of the Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership. The conceptual analysis identifies questions of construct validity and invites further development of theory based on constructs Task and Maintenance.

Primary Constructs

Two constructs, most often called "Task" and "Maintenance" or "Task" and "Relationship," have been used in virtually every discipline that studies human behavior or human systems. Authors who have developed thought systems utilizing variations of these two primary constructs include:

- Kurt Lewin (1938 with Lippitt; 1939, 1951) who studied effects of autocracy and democracy on group process and developed field theory.
- R.F. Bales (1950, 1958) who developed the interaction process analysis utilizing "task roles" and "social roles" in problem solving groups.
- K. D. Benne with P. Sheets (1948) who built on the work of Bales as they identified roles assumed by group members and influence on behavior of other group members: group task roles, group maintenance roles, and individual roles.
- Talcott Parsons and R. F. Bales (1955), sociology, who studied roles in a family system using a dichotomy of "instrumental behavior" and "expressive behavior."
- William Fawcett Hill (1965) who studied interactive communication processes in group therapy settings and developed an Interaction Matrix utilizing two scales "level and style of content" and "level and style of therapeutic work" (the intent of the communication and the person of the communicator).
- Virginia Satir (1967) a family therapist who identified two primary needs of a person as ability to esteem him/herself as a "masterful person" and as a "sexual person" (p. 46).

---

[1] For purposes of clarity in this manuscript, the terms Task and Maintenance or Relationship are capitalized when used as theoretical constructs.

- Diana Baumrind (1971) in child development, who found authoritative parenting consisting of a blend of "support" with "rationality and firm control" to produce children who were highly independent and achievement oriented.
- Lefton & Buzzota (1980), Lefton, Buzzotta, Sherberg (1970, 1980), and Troyer (1977) developed a dimensional approach to training for management and team building around the primary constructs "dominant- submissive" and "hostile- warm."
- David Olson, et al (1979, 1983) developed a Circumplex Model for study of family systems utilizing two axes of "adaptability" and "cohesion."
- David W. Johnson & Frank P. Johnson (1982, p. 50-71; 1987, p. 34-80) who utilized "task actions" and "maintenance actions" as constructs for interpreting leadership in a group setting.

The extensiveness of the use of these primary constructs, called by different names, is illustrated by Blake- Mouton. "A Catalog of Approaches to Human Relations Through a Grid Framework" plots the works of 61 authors or sets of authors against the styles of the Managerial Grid (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 219-230; 1980, p. 206-217).

Toward a Definition of Leadership

Leadership is a complex multi-faceted phenomena. Definitions of leadership are as varied as the authors who seek to define it. Frameworks that have been developed are often situation or population specific and are sometimes descriptive rather than operationally defined. The lack of commonly accepted conceptual and operational definitions has produced a mass of research with little commonality and little consensus regarding meaning of results. "Four decades of research on leadership have produced a bewildering mass of findings.... The endless accumulation of empirical data has not produced an integrated understanding of leadership" (Bass, 1981, p. xvii). "Decades of academic analysis have given us more than 350 definitions of leadership.... Never have so many labored so long to say so little" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 4). "Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth.... A recent study turned up 130 definitions of the word.... There is no school of leadership, intellectual or practical.... No central concept has emerged, in part because scholars have worked in separate disciplines in pursuit of... unrelated questions and problems" (Burns, 1978, p. 2-3).

While early leadership studies are rooted in the group process and human potential movements, the need for leadership in every arena and the massive cultural changes of the twentieth century have produced trends toward situational perspectives and dyadic units of study. Research has been done primarily in bureaucratic settings: universities, the world of industry, or the military. The most common meaning given leadership is the ability of a person to enable a group to accomplish goals. The newest magic words in the study of leadership are "followership," "transformation," and "empowerment."

The literature shows vague awareness that the follower(s) set(s) the paramaters of the leader's ability to lead. One systematic examination of issues of leader- follower interaction appears as a full issue of Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 18, 3 (Heller and Van Til, Eds., 1982).

Transformation deals with group, institutional, or social change. Empowerment deals with personal change (growth) that is expressed in action for social change.Transformation flows from the work of James McGregor Burns; empowerment is supported by Burns and elaborated in writings by social analysts, educators, and by feminists.

While the systematic development of the concept of empowerment is beyond the boundaries of this monograph, several significant works have come to the attention of this researcher. Keiffer (1984) has developed an exciting model for citizen empowerment based on a long term process of adult learning and development. The primary method is participation (learning by experience) that is facilitated by reflexive praxis. The output is a feeling of power with knowledge, skills, and commitment. Empowerment is seen as the attainment of participatory competence (p. 9-32).

Another project comes from Cornell University, is designed to empower parents in a community setting, and is documented in Cochran & Woolever (1983) and Vanderslice, Cherry, Cochran, and Dean (1984). The work of Freire (1980, 1985, 1986) describes reflexive educational praxis that empowers the learner and is the root of social change. Theorists whose works deal with empowerment in the larger social setting include Boyte (1986) who writes of voluntary agencies as "free spaces" where individuals can initiate significant political and social change (p. 309-313), and Bellah (1986) who writes of voluntary agencies that, by maintaining commitment to principles in a social context, stabilize and empower voluntary movements (p. 105- 106).

Leadership (Burns, 1978) is a robust and seminal contemporary study of leadership. A historian, Burns sweeps the literature of humanistic psychology and psychobiography, and blends these insights with his own, those of a social and political analyst. He deals with leadership on personal, interpersonal, group, agency, and national and international levels. This "watershed" book focuses leadership into two categories: "transactional leadership" and "transformational leadership." The two types are complementary and both may be practiced by the same leader.

Transactional leadership consists of transactions built on exchange that enable the accomplishment of common goals. Most of the leadership research deals with transactional leadership. The transactional leader and follower accomplish common goals, but are not bound together in mutual and continuing pursuit of a higher purpose (p. 20).

Transformational leadership can be measured by actual social change and lifts both the leader and followers to higher levels of moral development and activity. Transformational leadership is relational, collective, and purposeful (p. 11, 18). The existences of leader and follower are interwoven (p. 5). It is based in mutual respect (p. 21), is rooted in the free choice of the follower (p. 4, 36), and is guided by "near- universal ethical principles of justice such as equality of human rights and respect for human dignity" (p. 42). It is interactive and results in continuing development of both leader and followers (p. 20). Leadership always occurs in the seedbed of conflict (p. 38) and is the dialectical and synthetic process that brings leader and led to a higher or better position. "The transforming leader.... looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents" (p. 4). "Transforming leadership.... occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality.... Their purposes... become fused. Power bases are linked...as mutual support for common purpose.... Transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, and thus it has a transforming effect on both" (p. 20). The basis for moral leadership is the shared needs, aspirations, and values of leader and follower and the free choice of the follower (p. 4, 36). Coercion is excluded from leadership (p. 3, 417, 448).

Burns suggests that "By clarifying the definition of leadership...we can broaden its utility as a tool for causal analysis and its potential for realizing modal values and end-values" (p. 452):

> 1. Leadership is collective.... A symbiotic relationship develops that binds leader and follower together into a social and political collectivity (p. 452).
>
> 2. Leadership is dissensual. Meaningful conflict produces engaged leaders.... Conflict unifies people just as it divides them. The only long-run hope for world peace is to realign the foundations of political combat and consensus so that conflicts are managed peacefully within nations rather than by force between nations (p. 454).
>
> 3. Leadership is causative.... The most lasting tangible act of leadership is the creation of an institution... that continues to exert moral leadership and foster needed social change long after the creative leaders are gone.... The most lasting and pervasive leadership of all .... is the leadership of influence fostered by ideas embodied in social or religious or artistic movements, in books, in great seminal documents, in the memory of great lives greatly lived (p. 455).

> 4. Leadership is morally purposeful.... "The problem is always to choose key values and to create a social structure that embodies them." The transforming leader taps the needs and raises the aspirations and helps shape the values - and hence mobilizes the potential - of followers (p. 455).
>
> 5. Transforming leadership is elevating.... In the enmeshing of goals and values both leaders and followers are raised to more principled levels of judgment (p. 455-456).

Burns establishes clear criteria for effective leadership: "The test of leadership in all its forms.... is the realization of purpose measured by popular needs manifested in social and human values..... Ultimately the effectiveness of leaders as leaders will be tested by the achievement of purpose in the form of real and intended social change" (p. 251). Or again, "The ultimate test of practical leadership is the realization of intended, real change that meets people's enduring needs" (p. 461).

Burns sees leadership to be at the heart of education as learning is at the heart of leadership:

> The force most important in shaping leaders is learning. (p. 63)
>
> [Self-actualization] rises from the interplay with other persons, an open and inclusive attitude toward them, an ability to assess themselves in a "reflexive self-awareness," and a relatively rational and orderly approach to problems.... The most marked characteristic of self-actualizers... is their capacity to learn from others and from their environment - the capacity to be taught. (p. 117)
>
> Can leadership be taught?....Leadership is the tapping of existing and potential motive and power bases of followers by leaders, for the purpose of achieving intended change. We conceive education in essentially the same terms. Education is... the total teaching and learning process operating in homes, schools, gangs, temples, churches, garages, streets, armies, corporations, bars, and unions, conducted by both teachers and learners, engaging with the total environment, and involving influence over persons' selves and their opportunities and destinies, not simply their minds.... Ultimately education and leadership shade into each other to become almost inseparable, but only when both are defined as the reciprocal - raising levels of motivation rather than indoctrination or coercion. (p. 448)
>
> Teachers... treat students neither coercively nor instrumentally but as joint seekers of truth and of mutual actualization..... This kind of education... starts in the home and exists potentially in every major sector and institution of society. (p. 449)

Transformational leadership is rooted in empathy and the capacity for mutuality and reciprocity (p.100). Burns concludes, "In real life, the most practical advice for leaders is not to treat pawns like pawns, nor princes like princes, but all persons like persons.... That people can be lifted into their better selves is the secret of transforming leadership and the moral and practical theme of this work" (p. 462).

While drawing heavily on humanistic psychology, Burns is aware of limitations of that discipline. He states clearly that neither Freud nor Skinner provides a comprehensive approach for understanding the mass popular base to which leadership appeals (p. 63).

Burns analyzes leadership from a macro perspective. Whether these two constructs are equally relevant to a small group setting has not been empirically established. Even so, the two concepts, transactional and transformational leadership, have recast major current leadership studies.

The concept of "transformative leadership" permeates the recent work of Bennis & Nanus (1985). They studied 90 persons in top leadership roles, 60 in corporate settings and 30 in the public sector. They interpret the "new leader" to be one who commits people to action, who converts followers to leaders, and who may convert leaders into agents of change (p. 3). Power is the reciprocal of leadership, and leadership is the wise use of power (p. 17). They contrast leadership with management:

> "To manage" means "to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct." "Leading" is "influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, opinion." The distinction is crucial. Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing. The difference may be summarized as activities of vision and judgment - effectiveness versus activities of mastering routines - efficiency. (p. 21)

Bennis & Nanus found four strategies to be used by these leaders: (a) Strategy I: attention through vision; (b) Strategy II: meaning through communication; (c) Strategy III: trust through positioning; (d) Strategy IV: the deployment of self through positive self-regard and the Wallenda factor.... They interpret these competencies to be the distilled essence of something much larger - peace, productivity, and perhaps freedom itself (p. 27). Transformative leadership empowers by creating an organizational culture. It is collective, causative, morally purposive and elevating, and it moves followers to higher degrees of consciousness (p. 218). Leaders have the ability to translate intention into reality and to sustain it (p. 226).

Bernard M. Bass (1985) has studied the constructs of transactional and transformational leadership, identified literature in support of each, and developed a standardized instrument "Leadership Questionnaire" (p. 201). The instrument measures transactional leadership with two scales: (a) contingent reward, and (b) management- by- exception. Transformational leadership is measured with three scales: (a) charisma, (b) individualized consideration, and (c) intellectual stimulation. Transactional and transformational leadership are understood to be complementary constructs. Managers are characteristically transactional. Leaders are characteristically transformational. "Charismatic leadership behavior accounted for 64.9 % of the 89.5 % of variance of consequence. It clearly was transformational. It concerned the faith and respect in the leader and the inspiration and encouragement provided by his (or her) presence" (p. 209). This scholarly work provides a firm foundation in support of further research.

The issue of ethics is woven through the leadership literature. Bass (1985) takes the position that all transformers are leaders: transformational leadership can be moral or immoral (p. 182). Burns (1978) insists that leadership rests on moral foundations. The morality of leadership is rooted in empathy, in the interaction between leader and follower, in shared motives, aspirations, and values, and in universal moral principles (p. 5, 36, 100, 426, 455). Robert Terry (1986, 1989) has developed an integrated ethical approach to leadership focused in authentic actions in response to inauthentic situations.

Terry (1986) acknowledges Burns' position that ethics is at the heart of leadership, but argues that Burns' work is based on social science theory and lacks the tools to deal with ethical complexities of leadership decisions. "Burns' theory does not explore the relationship between meaning and existence.... He does not have a view of human evil that deepens the perplexities of leadership in a complex, morally ambiguous, world." (p. 11).

Terry analyzes studies of leadership into six views: (a) trait theory, (b) situational theory, (c) organizational theory, (d) power theories, (e) vision theory, and (f) ethical assessment theory. Terry then offers "A Seventh View" of leadership that organizes, evaluates, and supplements the first six. His tool for framing a situation utilizes six features of human action: (a) meaning, (b) mission, (c) power, (d) structure, (e) resources, and (f) existence. All six features combined lead to fulfillment, that into which human action moves (p. 13).

The seventh or comprehensive view affirms each of the other views in a larger context. Leadership is a subset of human action. It encompasses all six views of leadership, yet reaches beyond each. It is more than the sum of its parts (p. 15)."Leadership is a particular kind of social ethical practice.... It emerges when persons in communities, grounded in hope, are grasped by inauthentic situations and courageously act in concert with followers to make those situations authentic" (p. 15). Leadership is evoked by issues in the world that require action and demand involvement, inauthentic situations that violate our deepest senses and distort our human essence, undermining our capacity to see, to know, and to do. By responding authentically, the leader seeks to increase caring, responsibility, empowering, fairness, freedom, and dwelling. "Leadership empowers human beings to claim ultimate fulfillment. Thus leadership is not reducible to traits, skills, organization, power, vision, or even to ethical vision alone. It is fundamental and profound engagement with the world and the human condition" (p.16-17).

Primary Constructs in Leadership Literature

In past leadership studies, the primary constructs Task and Maintenance have been central and pervasive. In a monumental book, Bass (1981) analyzes over 5,000 pieces of research; the book stands authoritatively alone in summarizing empirical efforts to understand the complex phenomenon of leadership. Variations on the themes of Task and Maintenance are woven through the text: "democratic" vs. "autocratic" leadership, "person related" vs. "work related" behavior, "participative" vs. "directive" leadership, "relations-oriented" vs. "task-oriented" leadership, "consideration" and "initiating structure," "productivity" and "satisfaction," "laissez-faire leadership" vs."motivation to manage," "group drive" and "group cohesiveness," task determinants of leadership, leadership and interpersonal space, open and closed communication networks, etc.

Bass (1981, p. 289) charts 26 major studies examining democratic vs. autocratic patterns between 1938 and 1976; authors include Lewin & Lippitt, Katz, Fleishman, Kahn, Cartwright & Zander, MacGregor, Blake & Mouton, Likert, Bass, Fiedler, Yukl, and Vroom & Yetton. "Task" and "relations" orientations are seen to be primary components of democratic and autocratic leadership (Bass, 1981, p. 331).

The use of Task and Maintenance to study leadership focuses in the the work of Reddin (1964, 1970) Tri-Dimensional Grid; Fiedler (1967; with Chemers, 1974) Least Preferred Co-Worker and Contingency Model; and the Ohio State Leadership Studies. All, but especially the Ohio State Leadership Studies, contributed to the milieu within which the Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership developed.

The Ohio State Leadership Studies, beginning with the work of Shartle in 1945, plotted 1800 items of leader behavior into nine different subscales; ultimately these produced two major factors "consideration" and "initiation of structure." These major scales were used by Hemphill in 1950 to form the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Bass, 1981, p. 358). Three versions were constructed: LBDQ, SBDQ, and LBDQ-XII; reliabilities ranged from .68 to .93 for both scales on all three versions. Fleischman and others worked with the studies. "Fiedler's LPC and the LBDQ have dominated leadership research in the past twenty years" (Bass, 1981, p. 608).

Bass comments on "relations" and "task" oriented leadership:

> [The orientation toward task or relationship has many antecedents.]....leadership style tends to depend on the leader's personal characteristics as well as situational contingencies such as characteristics of the followers and the organization and task goals and constraints within which the leadership occurs. (p. 332)

> The majority of reports indicates that subordinate satisfaction with their leaders is linked to their leaders' relations- oriented attitudes and behavior. (p.335)
>
> Both relations orientation and task orientation are found to be positively associated with group productivity, goal attainment, and follower performance.... it may be that in a majority of circumstances both types of leadership are optimal. (p. 336)
>
> Blake & Mouton (1964) argued that maximum leadership effectiveness occurs only when the leader... integrates the human and task requirements of the job.... Kahn & Katz (1953), Oaklander & Fleishman (1964), and Likert (1977a), among many others came to similar conclusions..... Both patterns of behavior must be combined in order to affect productivity in a positive direction.... (p. 338)

The two primary constructs of the LBDQ are highly stable and consistent (Bass, 1981, p. 359). While the constructs are thought to be independent, they sometimes produce a high positive association suggesting that they may represent another single factor. Bass comments on the LBDQ:

> Theoretically, given the original orthogonal factor structure, initiation and consideration should be independent, but such is not the case.... In eleven of thirteen studies using the LBDQ, a positive correlation was reported. The median correlation for the thirteen analyses was .45. Likewise for the LBDQ-XII for ten studies, the median correlation was .52 between initiation of structure and consideration. (p. 362)
>
> Finally, the high positive association of consideration and initiation of structure as measured by LBDQ-XII suggests that a single, general factor, solution may be warranted. Nevertheless, with reference to the contents of the LBDQ's, the two- factor framework for describing leader behavior, consideration and initiation of structure, emerge consistently from factor analyses when no additional constraints are placed on the analysis. (p. 367)

Klaus and Bass (1982) studied interpersonal communication in organizations. Bass (1985) makes a transition to the newer leadership paradigm, transactional and transformational leadership. "For half a century, the study of leadership has centered on autocratic versus democratic approaches; on questions about the locus of decision making - directive versus participative; on questions about the focus - task versus relationships; or on questions about the behavior - initiation versus consideration.... Promoting change and dealing with resistance [called for] democratic, participative, relations oriented, considerate leadership.... In many contingencies... more direction, task- orientation, and initiation were seen to be the more effective way to lead" (p. 3). These approaches to leadership accomplish goals, but do not produce the higher order changes such as " the effect on leader- follower relations of symbolism, mysticism, imaging, and fantasy" (p. 6). Studies in transformational leadership deal with vision, transcendental interests, and performance beyond expectations.

Toward a Definition of Team Process

Despite its importance to organizational development and training efforts, little consensus exists about a definition of team building. It is referred to as a program for uniting people into shared efforts for improved effectiveness (Dyer, 1977, p. 42) and as the development of a social system that exhibits the characteristics of a highly effective, people- building, potential releasing, goal- achieving organization (Dyer, 1972, p. 103). "Team development, in its best sense, is creating the opportunity for people to come together to share their concerns, their ideas, and their experiences, and to begin to work together to solve their mutual problems and achieve common goals" (Dyer, 1977, p. 42). Patten defines a team as "any group of individuals whose social- emotional bonds have been tightened and whose technical or social skills have been sharpened in order to fulfill individual and organizational purposes" (1981, p. 262). Team building is the use of groups to facilitate organizational change (DeMeuse & Liebowitz, 198l, p. 358; Schein in Dyer, 1977, p. viii). Team building involves persons in a process through which their capacity to accomplish a common task is enhanced.

Goodstein, Cooke, and Goodstein define team development as balancing the relative strength of task and maintenance values and skills.

> Team development is the analysis of the relative strength of group task and maintenance roles in functionally interdependent teams for the purpose of establishing, restoring, or maintaining an adequate balance between these two roles in order for the team to function at its maximum potential.... A fully functioning team can be characterized as having members with a high value commitment to both task and maintenance and with high skills in both areas.... This profile of a fully functioning team should be the goal of team development activities. (Goodstein, Cooke, and Goodstein, 1983, p. 104)

Johnson & Johnson (1987) take the position that in effective team process relationship enables task accomplishment. "A team is a set of interpersonal relationships structured to achieve established goals. Teams function as individual members interact. The productivity of teams is not a simple function of team members' technical competencies and task abilities. Productivity is not guaranteed because all team members have an interest in attaining the team's goals. Successful team performance requires interpersonal competencies" (p. 397). Patten (1981) takes a similar position, suggesting that the initial OD effort begin with the individual and focus on social- emotional learning (p. 63, 64). Patten characterizes mature teams as having high process awareness, adequate communications, trust and openness, high utilization of personal resources, and modeling of the team process by the person with the highest organizational status (p. 262). Although empirical verification is lacking, the literature indicates that effective relationship is essential to (the ground of) team process.

Primary Constructs in Team Process Literature

Team building is acknowledged to be the most widely utilized intervention in the field of organization development. "Effective and productive teams, at both the worker and managerial level, are the desired end product of most OD interventions" (Goodstein, Cooke, and Goodstein, 1983, p. 103). Patten states that team building activities represent the most important single class of OD interventions. Team building is so central to organizational development that he sometimes refers to them as if they were identical and the same: "OD team building," "OD through team building," "OD team building and consultation techniques," "team building OD," and "team building and all OD efforts" (Patten, 1981, p. 60, 82-83, 86, 87). Patten calls OD a "multipurpose behavioral technology" and "an amalgam from the best thinking of the behavioral sciences" (p. 256-257).

Authors indicate elements of team process. Johnson & Johnson (1987) identify five essential elements for a team to function productively: "(a) positive interdependence, (b) individual accountability, (c) face- to- face interaction, (d) collaborative skills, and (e) group processing" (p. 397-402). Dyer (1972) lists the essential elements of team process: "(a) climate of high social support - high trust among members, (b) open communication process, (c) creative problem solving, (d) commitment, (e) achievement of individual and organizational goals, and (d) interdependence and team effort" (p. 103). Burke (1982) quotes McGregor's criteria for an effective team: (a) understanding, mutual agreement, and identification with respect to the primary task; (b) open communications; (c) mutual trust; (d) mutual support; (e) management of human differences; (f) selective use of team process; (g) appropriate member skills; and (h) leadership (p. 279-281).

Interventions that are used for team building are varied. This is due in part to (a) the lack of definitions, theories, and standardized instruments and in part to (b) the fact that the change agent designs the interventions to meet the needs of each particular group or unit. Patten (1981) notes that "few long- range, comprehensive strategic models have been thought out in detail, except perhaps for Blake and Mouton's longitudinal design for corporate excellence using the managerial grid [sic] and other associated tools" (p. 61).

Patten takes the position that the use of instruments to enable data based interventions is central to the process (1981, p.13). This researcher requested team development instruments from nationally known publishing houses or trainers, i.e. Blake- Mouton, Dyer, Gibb, Hall, Patton, Likert, Lippitt, and University Associates. No contact produced a standardized instrument, i.e., one for which reliability and validity data were available. Nine of the instruments obtained were analyzed for content and found to use scales dealing with mission, goals, leadership, participation, planning, decision making or problem solving, conflict management, trust, relationship, communication, feedback or evaluation, recognition or rewards, synergy, and satisfaction.

A dual emphasis on task and relationship is implicit in every piece of team literature reviewed by this author. Models reviewed seem to have two primary goals in mind: (a) to enhance the effectiveness of interpersonal interaction (Maintenance), and (b) to enhance the ability of the group to perform the tasks around which its members are interdependent (Task). Beckhardt (1972) saw four purposes for team building: (a) to set goals and priorities, (b) to analyze roles and responsibilities, (c) to examine how the team is working: norms, decision making, conflict management, etc., and (d) to examine relationships among team members (Goodstein, Cooke, & Goodstein, 1983, p. 103; Burke, 1982, p. 268). A similar four point model is identified by DeMeuse & Liebowitz (1981, p. 359) and attributed to Beer.

In summary, the goal of team building is the enhanced relational and task effectiveness of a work group. It utilizes methods and strategies from organization development and human resource development theorists to design interventions that allow the persons who comprise the team to enhance their skills and take charge of the processes through which they perform their tasks.

The theory on which team building literature is based lists sets of authors virtually identical with those from which the leadership literature has developed: the humanistic behavioral scientists. The relationship between the development of leadership and team building concepts and processes has been very close and has consistently drawn on theorists utilizing Task and Maintenance. The theory on which Patten (1981) bases the OD portion of team building centers in the behavioral sciences, and includes the works of: Maslow, Needs Theory; McGregor, Theory Y; Herzberg, Hygiene Theory; McClelland, Achievement Motivation; Likert, Linking Pin and System 4; Myers, Job Enrichment; and Levinson, Jackass Fallacy (p.59).

> These are essentially in agreement concerning the nature of human effectiveness.... they have similar ideas about the styles, systems, and assumptions, [that] management might use to create employee motivating incentives.... These new notions form the theory base of OD through teambuilding. (p. 60)

Dyer (1977) develops a similar genealogy, tracing the roots of theory through Mayo's Hawthorne Studies (p. 8), McGregor and Likert (p. 11-17), and Blake and Mouton (p. 17), all authors who emphasized the advantages of participative management (p. 21). From the fields of group dynamics and laboratory education, he cites Schein and Bennis; Bradford, Gibb, and Benne; and Luft, all of whom emphasized the importance of the human group for integrating people into organizations and for building effective work relationships (p. 20).

Goodstein, Cooke, and Goodstein (1983) identify the earliest roots in the work of Bales and Benne & Sheats:

> Based on the work of Bales (1950), Benne and Sheats (1948) found that group members assume social roles in order to influence the behavior of other group members. They identified three major classes of roles: those necessary to accomplish a task, those necessary to increase the supportive climate and cohesion of the group, and those necessary to satisfy personal needs. Benne and Sheats labeled these as ... group task roles, group maintenance roles, and individual roles, and said that effective team functioning requires a balance of the first two... and a minimization of the last. (p.103)

The importance of trust, openness, self realization, and interdependence are woven through the literature. Trust is assumed to be the ground of effective interpersonal relationship and therefore integral to team process. Patton (1981) understands trust to be the precursor of open human response at every level of personal and organizational interaction (p. 213, 244-247, 259). He states that the T-Group background of OD has led to a stress on openness, trust, and collaborative models (p. 259). Johnson and Johnson (1982) describe the importance of trust:

> Trust is a necessary condition for stable cooperation and effective communication. The higher the trust the more stable the cooperation and the more effective the communication.... In a goal oriented group the crucial elements of trust are openness and sharing on the one hand and acceptance, support, and cooperative intentions on the other.... Trusting behavior may be defined as openness and sharing and trustworthy behavior may be defined as the expression of acceptance, support, and cooperative intentions. (p. 390)

Johnson (1986) elaborates the development and maintenance of trust; he relates trust to the development of cohesion and group norms (1987, p. 408-425).

Jack Gibb (1978, 1972), a leader in the human potential movement, is a primary proponent of trust. Gibb writes of trust as the basic dimension of relationship to self, other, group, and society. His work expands trust into processes of openness, self- realization, and interdependence and applies these to organizations.

Functional interdependence is at the heart of team process. Dyer (1972) says of interdependence:

> Interdependence is a state in which each person functions at a high level of utilization of his own resources as he uses the resources of others. The opposite of interdependence is dependency or counter- dependency.... Independence connotes a condition of separateness in which people go their own ways rather than working in connection with each other. Team effort is the result of high interdependency.... with a synergistic effect, as the whole is greater than the sum of its independent parts. (p. 103)

Tjosvold (1984) suggests the use of cooperation theory (Deutsch and Johnson & Johnson) in analyses of social interaction in organizations. A meta- analysis of over 100 studies by Johnson, Maruyama, Johnson, Nelson, & Skon (1981) found that cooperation induced higher productivity than either competitive or individualistic effort overall. He argues that theory and research on goal interdependence aids understanding social interaction and productivity in organizations. He suggests that this theory might be useful in understanding intergroup relations and relationships in which power is unequal. Tjosvold notes that most of the work with cooperation theory has been done in the field of education but little use has been made of it in organizational settings.

A work group seeking to function as a team is always in the process of becoming (Patten, 1981, p. 261). Team work is a means rather than an end. Team building (learning skills for interdependent collaboration) is probably better conceived as team process than as team building or teamwork. Several authors support the concept of team process:

> Team building is the current designation given to a process for revitalizing a system. (Dyer, 1972, p. 101)
>
> Research... on group processes has had considerable impact on the design of team-development programs.... an ongoing process, not a single event.... continual team building becomes part of the activities of the work group. (Dyer, 1977, p. 10, 44, 64-65)

Schein (1969) writes that the purpose of process consultation is to develop processes at the individual, interpersonal, and intergroup levels and to diagnose and establish effective helping relationships. The various functions that make up an organization are always mediated by the interactions of people so that the organization can never escape its human processes (p. 8, 9). Patten describes team building processes as a class of interventions and a mature team as furthering a "dynamic, emergent state of becoming" (1981, p. 262).

> The essential role of the change agent in team-building is as a "process" consultant rather than as a "content" expert. His prime responsibility is to create process awareness by which the team can take a meaningful look at itself, its functions of working together, and its objectives for change.
>
> It will be a truly collaborative process of managing the culture of an organization. It will not be something that is done to somebody but instead a transactional process of people working together to improve their mutual effectiveness in attaining their mutual objectives.... What is important is how the group learns to work processually [sic], thus determining how successfully the group will function as a cohesive team as long as it exists with a set of organizational tasks. (Patten, 198l, p. 106, 82, 261, 263)

This paper will, from here on, refer to all activities and interventions designed to enhance the process effectiveness of a work group as team process.

Is there empirical evidence to support claims made for the theory and the methods? Is the promised effectiveness of team process verifiable? Patten (1981) indicates that there are very few long range evaluations of team building efforts (p. 250) and that "OD technology has tended to proliferate much more rapidly than the theory base and there is a lag that needs to be addressed through empirical research" (p. 261).

DeMeuse & Liebowitz (1981) review 36 studies of team building in an organizational development context. They focus research designs, sample sizes, dependent variables, and length of time the intervention was investigated. They found the lack of rigor in research methods to preclude any firm conclusions about which improvements were functions of team building and which were due to uncontrolled variables. Based on four literature reviews, DeMeuse & Liebowitz take the position that:

> 1. Few empirical studies have been conducted on the effects of OD interventions.
> 2. The overwhelming majority of those studies had severe methodological weaknesses.
> 3. Little systematic knowledge presently exists concerning the efficacy of OD.
> 4. Future research should be more rigorous. (p. 358)

DeMeuse & Liebowitz identify two primary problems with the research: (a) the definition of teambuilding is given merely in conceptual terms, and (b) very few specify any relationships between independent variables and dependent variables prior to the team building intervention. DeMeuse & Liebowitz quote three authors, none of whom operationally defines variables:

> Huse: Team building is the process of helping a work group become more effective in accomplishing its tasks and in satisfying the needs of group members.
>
> Dyer: Team building is an intervention conducted in a work unit as an action to deal with a condition (or conditions) seen as needing improvement.

> Beer: Group development is a process by which members of a group diagnose how they work together and plan changes which [sic] will improve their effectiveness.

The failure to specify relationships between the independent variables and dependent variables prior to the team building intervention makes it impossible to generate empirical evidence. Often a large number of dependent variables are measured in hope of capturing the changes caused by the team building. "Some researchers have assessed team building effectiveness by measuring 'group effectiveness,' and then proceeded to 'operationalize' [sic] group effectiveness (frequently post hoc) as increased intragroup cohesiveness, reduced group- member absenteeism, improved interpersonal relations, and so on" (p. 359). DeMeuse & Liebowitz divide the dependent variables used to assess the impact of the 36 team building studies into four types:

> 1. Initial reactions: (evaluative remarks made about the usefulness shortly after the sessions terminate).
>
> 2. Attitudinal / perceptual changes: (subjective assessments of intragroup conditions which [sic] have changed. Variables include: satisfaction, group climate, perceived trust, openness and supportiveness, perceived group effectiveness, and superior-subordinate relations.)... Concepts measured include collaboration, trust, conflict resolution, communication, participation, team cohesiveness, group problem-solving ability, leadership styles, group and organizational climate, effectiveness of staff meetings, allocation of work assignments, interpersonal relations, role clarity, goal setting, job involvement, plant morale, managerial and social support, bases of social power, job and life satisfaction, and group effectiveness.... Nearly all of the studies collected data through interviews, tailored questionnaires, and / or researcher observations.
>
> 3. Behavioral changes: (group- member behaviors which [sic] may have been modified by the intervention, i.e., turnover, absenteeism, etc). Variables include work group performance, turn over, critical incidents following team building, absenteeism.
>
> 4. Organizational changes: (organizational productivity, turnover within organization, conflict management. (DeMeuse & Liebowitz, 1981, p. 364-368)

Team building as an OD intervention seems highly effective. "Eighty percent (29 studies) showed positive results, and about 17 percent (6 studies) showed mixed results.... These results suggest that team development is consistently effective for enhancing individual attitudes and perceptions and improving individual and organizational performance, with a greater emphasis on the latter" (p. 369).

DeMeuse & Liebowitz write that the excessive weaknesses in the research methods and measurements rule out any firm conclusions concerning the efficacy of team building (p. 369). "The lack of an operational definition of team building is perhaps the most disconcerting weakness.... Until team development is standardized, an adequate evaluation of its impact on the individual, group, and organization will be impossible.... Hypothesized cause- and- effect relationships must be made a priori and then tested, if any semblance of a theory is to develop" (DeMeuse & Liebowitz, 1981, p. 372).

Primary Constructs in Managerial Grid and in Situational Leadership

Two frameworks for utilizing Task and Maintenance are in extensive use: The Managerial Grid® by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton and Situational Leadership ©,™ by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard. The Grid is an accepted standard for training for team process. Situational Leadership is sometimes interpreted as the successor to the Grid, i.e., a different or better way of attaining the same goal.

Patten (1981) appears to make no distinctions between Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership.

> Few long-range, comprehensive strategic models for OD have been thought out in any detail, except perhaps for Blake and Mouton's longitudinal design for corporate excellence using the Managerial Grid and other associated tools. (p.61) .... The popularity of the Managerial Grid is well known; the conceptual base for the Grid has been found useful in many organizations when managerial style is being considered. (p.71)
>
> Successful leadership styles tend to vary considerably among managers, and versatility has become the prime concern. (p.72) .... The Hersey- Blanchard LEAD instruments provide useful data for teambuilding and OD based upon versatility and contingency notions. ... The instruments appear to work well in team- building seminar / workshops and generate useful data that can be dissected by managers who are interested in improving their ability to cooperate in task accomplishment and building better interpersonal relationships. ..... *The LEAD instruments can apparently be used the same way as the Grid in teambuilding.* ...to encourage managers in articulating their managerial philosophies and in crystallizing their views on how to perform in a team modality with peers, subordinates, counterparts, and others. (p. 73)

Bass (1981) says of Blake- Mouton and Hersey- Blanchard:

> Hersey and Blanchard's (1969, 1972) Life Cycle Theory of Leadership is a theory of leadership effectiveness *synthesizing* Blake and Mouton's (1964) Managerial Grid postulations, Reddin's (1977) 3-D Effectiveness typology, and Argyris' (1964a) Maturity- Immaturity theory. (p. 34)

Yukl (1981) compares the frameworks. He understands Situational Leadership to be a *successor* to the Managerial Grid (p. 140).

Response to such interpretations have placed the authors of the Managerial Grid and

Situational Leadership in debate. Blake- Mouton refer to this as "the controversy of one best style vs. situationalism." The interchanges seemed to peak in 1982 when several journals (Training and Development, Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Group and Organization Studies) published series of articles in which the two sets of authors challenged and responded to each other. Other journals published single articles examining the debate (Management Review, Personnel, Organizational Dynamics, Academy of Management Review). Blake and Mouton defended their work by appealing to logic and human relations literature; Hersey and Blanchard have published sporadic articles in response. Since 1982-1983, occasional articles have appeared and each set of authors continues to publish books and materials with rationale that questions the positions taken by the other.

The two frameworks differ on several dimensions including the nature of leadership, the place of leadership style in management strategies, and methods for developing a theory of leadership. Writings are focused around a situational vs. a principled approach, definitions of the primary constructs, ways in which the constructs combine to form leadership style, and impact of leadership style on levels of the organization.

Both frameworks are well known and widely used, and are often applied to human systems in training and development, education, parenting, and human services. Their primary usage is in management training (Burke, 1980, p. 55). Both are built on the assumption that appropriate use of leadership styles is of prime importance in optimizing individual and organizational effectiveness (Dreilinger, et al, 1982b, p. 69).

Marshall Sashkin (1982), editor of Group and Organization Studies says:

> Blake and Mouton, as well as Hersey and Blanchard are widely recognized international management consultants, all eminently successful.... The Blake- Mouton and Hersey-Blanchard approaches are two of the most widely known views of managerial leadership in the world (not just the United States). Most mid- level or executive level managers are well acquainted with one or both.... Both models would seem to have a degree of truth, as both are based on two primary categories of leader behavior that were identified in research studies over thirty years ago.... The inherent accuracy of either model is an empirical research question. (p. 131-132)

This researcher's comparative examination of the two frameworks reveals similar rootage and considerable differences regarding definition and applications of the primary constructs.

The Managerial Grid,® Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton

Overview

The Managerial Grid ® with applications is designed for training managers in a corporate industrial setting (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 210-211). It shows face validity and is popular and widely used.

> The popularity of the Grid is well known. (Patten, 1981, p. 71)
>
> The Managerial Grid is the single most popular approach to training and development ...one of the most effective strategies for moving organizations. (Using the Managerial Grid to Ensure MBO, 1974)
>
> The Managerial Grid ...is probably the single most popular framework. (Quinn & McGrath, 1982a, p. 464)
>
> Blake and Mouton say...the best way to lead is to emphasize task accomplishment and relationship behavior equally.... The weight of recent evidence supports their contention... The evidence strongly suggests that both task and relationship are of equal importance regardless of the situation. (Burke, 1980, p. 56)

Major statements of the Managerial Grid framework were published in 1964, 1978, and 1985a, with an amplification in 1980. Blake- Mouton claim almost a million copies in print (1978, p. v). The New Managerial Grid (1978) functioned as the conceptual basis for the interaction with Hersey- Blanchard.[1]

Developed within and in response to the organization development movement, the Grid promises a bottom line of growth and excellence for the entire organization and effective team process with the full staff (1978, p. 140-156, 183-185). Development was fed by the continuing conversations of scholars who gathered annually with National Training Laboratories (Blake- Mouton, 1982f, p. 289-290). It provides an application of Task and Maintenance in human relations theories to the concerns of leadership for productivity within hierarchical organizations. Figure 1 depicts the model.

The Grid framework has several distinguishing characteristics. It is participatory; the process of human interaction is the baseline against which it builds. It is focused in communication; nine of the ten principles relate to managerial practices that are

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[1] Unless otherwise indicated, all page numbers in this conceptual analysis of the Managerial Grid refer to Blake, Robert R. and Mouton, Jane S. (1978). The New Managerial Grid. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing Co.

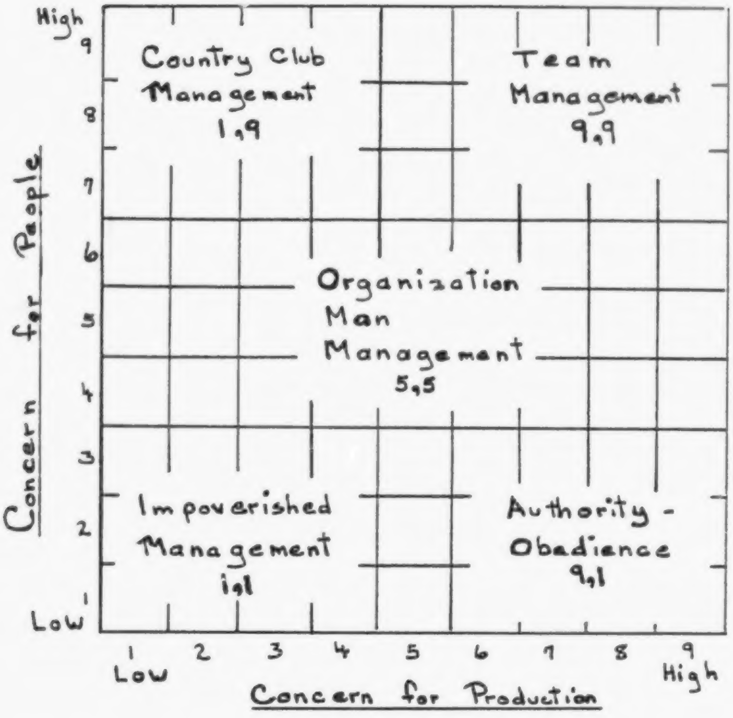
High
Low
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
Concern for People
Country Club Management 1,9
Team Management 9,9
Organization Man Management 5,5
Impoverished Management 1,1
Authority - Obedience 9,1
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
Low
High
Concern for Production

Figure 1. Drafted from Model of Managerial Grid. (Blake- Mouton, 1985a, p. 12)

communication dependent. It is built on principles; the authors have identified principles of human behavior, understood to be constants across situations, on which interpretations and training are built. It is conceptually integrated. It is systemic; it promises to impact the total organization through training and planning with leadership style(s) at the center of the process. It claims to be scientific, monitoring and working against a large body of theory and appealing to scholarship and logic to justify its concept formation. Grid thought is expressed as methodology for practice and claims support from a range of research.

Purpose

The purpose or mission of the Grid is ambitious - no less than the total development of the total organization. As early as 1964, Blake and Mouton wrote of mobilizing human relations training into organization wide efforts (Blake, Mouton, Greiner, and Greiner, 1964). The full strategy begins with Phase I: a Grid Seminar with top level executive-managers, influencing their attitudes and developing a team- leadership style, and Phase 2: Teambuilding. Trainers then engage staff in process and management techniques that spread Grid Organization Development through the entire organization. As the leadership styles become more participatory, teamwork emerges as the primary pattern for working relationships. The climate of teamwork frees, supports, and challenges each person to make the maximum productive contributions while simultaneously developing as a person. The recommended six phases (Grid Seminar, Team Building, Interface Development, Strategic Model Design, Implementing Strategic Model Design, and Consolidation) may take three to five years (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 177-196; 1985, p. 173-196).

Constructs With Anticipated Results

Concern for production and concern for people. The primary constructs are "concern for production" and "concern for people." "Concern" is defined as "the character and strength of assumptions about." Assumptions control experience, guide behavior, and organize relationships and ways of doing business as the manager works with and through others (p. 4-6, 15). "Production" is whatever the organization needs to have people accomplish or the product of the organization's mission. "People" are all persons with and through whom effective results are achieved: the boss, subordinates, colleagues, peers.

Production is achieved through mutually setting clear, purposeful, challenging, human goals. The achievement of a shared goal is personally satisfying. Managerial direction and control are achieved through negotiation and mutual agreement regarding purpose. Feedback and guidance occur through critique from both manager and colleagues. The Grid manager relies on the other's self- control and self- direction based in sense of ownership and awareness of organizational purpose. Widely shared responsibility is achieved through delegation and integration. The '9,9' manager shares responsibility, delegating both power and authority (Blake- Mouton, 1980, p. 64). In delegating, the manager becomes vulnerable to the subordinate. Management by objectives was used early as a parallel management process with the Grid (Using the Managerial Grid to Ensure MBO, 1974).

Grid trained people, working in a '9,9' style, generate interpersonal relationships of quality. The quality of these relationships sets the climate in which work occurs and are the foundation of team process. The quality of the leader- member or manager- employee relationship is amplified through the many one- to- one relationships in the work group. The leader's behavior links the production orientation with the people orientation. The framework assumes the continuing growth and development of each person, while that person is involved in the productive enterprise. The principles on which the framework rests simultaneously enable task accomplishment and personal development. The person in the power position attends especially to the qualities of each relationship. The Grid suggests that a manager may function as a counselor in helping a subordinate do emotional problem solving (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 157-169), or a parent may function with the child from a position of unconditional positive regard, a quality of personal acceptance that is not used for control or to reward compliance (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 113, 202; Blake- Mouton, 1981c, p. 449).

The Grid provides for the identification of five leadership styles. Addressing high levels of needs of production and high levels of needs of people, '9,9' is presented as the "one best style." "Concern," the attitude revealed in the style, guides the subjective appraisal of the situation by the manager and is revealed in the manager's behavior in relation to the situation. The manager's behavior sets the context for the relationship with each other person and imprints the climate and the culture of the organization. Assumptions (attitudes) organize ways of doing business and relationships, and shared assumptions provide a basis for action (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 5). Attitudes and assumptions that have been learned can be relearned, thus offering the possibility of significant and substantial changes in human behaviors that affect the productivity and satisfaction of large numbers of people.

Concept formation. Blake and Mouton treat concept formation in the development of theory as of prime importance. Statistical analysis cannot rectify the difficulties inherent in the theory if the basic concept formation is inappropriate (Blake- Mouton, 1982c, p. 41-42). They go to considerable lengths to interpret the primary constructs as *interactive, simultaneously interrelated and interdependent, but uncorrelated* (Blake- Mouton, 1985a, p. 197-223). The two constructs combine by degrees to form a new reality, a qualitatively different style of leadership. As water is different from its constituent elements hydrogen and oxygen, '9,9' leadership is qualitatively different from other leadership styles. Because the constructs are combinative, it is not possible to add varying quantities of each to form anything. "The one best style" is '9,9' leadership (Blake- Mouton, 1981c, p. 441). The '9,9' act of leadership is built on a "coupling in thought" and cannot be further sub-divided (Blake- Mouton, 1982f, p. 287).

> Grid emerged as a theory of leadership that rests on the interdependence of interacting but uncorrelated variables that are stated initially in terms of thinking, feeling, and attitudes. Thereafter, the actual behavior consonant with thoughts, feeling, and attitudes are brought into coherent description. Thus, Grid is both a theory of thought, feeling, and attitude on one side, but also of actual behavior on the other. There is no split between hard and soft but rather, hard and soft are seen as two different ways of describing a whole phenomena. It gains validity from the phenomenology that is made possible by a theory that fits with experience on the one side and research evidence on the other. (Blake- Mouton, 1982f, p. 288)

"Elements" which [sic] are interactive and interdependent cannot be treated or measured separately (Blake- Mouton, 1985a, p. 201, 202, 211, 233).

> The interdependencies between magnitudes of the X and Y variables are represented by the comma between them.... Reaching a valid description of the happening rests on the notion of interaction between interdependent variables (,), as compared with an arithmetic coupling of independent elements (+).
>
> These two interdependent dimensions of the '9,9' oriented leadership process are not treated or measured separately. It is not possible to remain structurally consistent with the happening itself and develop two independent tests which [sic] measure behavior on one dimension in isolation from the other. (1985a, p. 210-211)

For Blake- Mouton separate construct definitions cannot be used. Therefore establishing the existence or absence of correlation with the separate constructs would be impossible.

Styles. Blake- Mouton define the styles that emerge from the combinations of the two constructs:

> '9,1'. In the lower right-hand corner of the Grid a maximum concern (9) for production is combined with a minimum concern (1) for people. A manager acting under these assumptions concentrates on maximizing production by exercising power and authority and achieving control over people by dictating what they should do and how they should do it.
>
> '1,9'. The '1,9' leadership style is in the top left corner. Here a minimum concern (1) for production is coupled with a maximum concern (9) for people. Primary attention is placed on good feelings among colleagues and subordinates even at the expense of achieving results.
>
> '1,1'. A minimum concern for both production and people is represented by '1,1' in the lower left corner. The '1,1' oriented manager does only the minimum required to remain within the organization.
>
> '5,5'. The center depicts the '5,5' orientation. This is the "middle of the road" theory or the "go-along-to-get-along" assumptions which [sic] are revealed in conformity to the status quo.
>
> '9,9'. Represented in the upper right corner of the Grid, this style integrates production and people concerns. It is a goal centered, team approach that seeks to gain optimum results through participation, involvement, commitment, and conflict solving of everyone who can contribute. (Blake- Mouton, 1985a, p. 13)

> Three additional styles of significance are combinations of the 'pure' styles.
>
> 'Paternalism' is a combination of '9,1' direction and control, coupled with '1,9' rewards through praising compliance.
>
> 'Opportunism' is a combination of any or all theories based on whatever will advance the manager's personal gain.

'Facades' involve role playing in a '9,9' orientation to hide true motivations. (Blake-Mouton, 1985a, p. 13)

Power is an essential condition of organization; leadership style reflects a manager's use of power. Each style is a set of assumptions for using power to link people into production (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 12).

The authors refer to '9,9' as "the one best style." The '9,9' manager will achieve maximum production while enabling fully satisfying work experiences. Each person is fully involved and participating, committed, and creative. The '9,9' manager utilizes mutual goal setting, open communication (including rationale and data), mutual problem solving, resolving conflicts through confronting causes, critique focused toward learning, the reward of merit, and norms and standards that support excellence. As the manager carries out the traditional functions of "planning, organizing, directing, controlling, and staffing," the manager creates conditions that give the subordinates understanding and a stake in the outcomes. These '9,9' functions are charted in The New Managerial Grid (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 198-200). An equilibrium between concern for production and concern for people is maintained by '9,9' (Blake- Mouton, 198la, p. 62).

Teamwork. The '9,9' style enables the generation of teamwork. The goals of team building are to: "(a) replace outmoded traditions, precedents, and past practices with a sound team culture; (b) set standards of excellence; (c) increase personal objectivity in on-the- job behavior; (d) use critique for learning; and (e) establish objectives for team and individual achievement" (1978, p. 187).

Teamwork is characterized by synergy. Webster (1986, p. 1198) defines "synergism" as "the interaction of discrete agents such that the total effect is greater than the sum of the individual effects," i.e., the full dynamic reality is greater and different than the sum of its individual parts. Literature in team process suggests that as persons stimulate and support each other in a team setting, motivation, commitment, and caring increase, quality of work and production increase, creativity emerges, personal satisfaction deepens, and group loyalty and spirit grow. Mutual goal seeking and interpersonal support among subordinates multiply the effectiveness of the manager's leadership. Full responsibility for leadership is retained by the top person of each team (1978, p. 188). The bottom line is results based in valid communication, mutual understanding, and superordinate goals, all of which rest in good teamwork (1978, p. 140).

Related Concepts

Participation. Full participation of each person is a premise of the framework. Participation and involvement produce commitment and ownership - both powerful motivators (Blake- Mouton, 1982c, p. 26; Bidwell, Farrell, and Blake, 1981, p. 81, 82, 86). Participation is assumed for each person who is involved in the problem or touched by the decision. Participation is equally appropriate for each maturity level; the least mature person is ready for it (Blake- Mouton, 1981c, p. 448). Participation facilitates both task accomplishment and personal growth. "The Grid is a tool for helping managers and employees acquire the concepts and skills of effective participation" (Blake- Mouton, 1981a, p. 61).

Membership. '9,9' leadership supports the personal status of each individual, enabling that person to function as fully as able. The concept of "followership" is replaced by the concept of "membership."

> Followership is a concept that gathers its meaning from the '9+9' or paternalistic orientation... By comparison, the '9,9' approach of team leadership produces the concept of membership, not followership. A leader and members find best solutions to problems. Implementation is not by followers but by team members, and the leader's involvement in implementing may be as direct as for any other member.... The notion is of a central person in a network of relationships." (Blake- Mouton, 1982f, p. 289)

Principles. The '9,9' manager is consistent across situations (versatile) because the leadership style is based on principles of behavioral science.... Principles have emerged as constants of human interaction that are positive and productive. The principles are:

1. Fulfillment through contribution is the motivation that gives character to human activity and supports productivity and creativity.

2. Open communication is essential for the exercise of self and shared responsibility.

3. Conflicts are solved by confrontation of causes, with understanding and agreement as the bases of cooperative effort.

4. Being responsible for one's own actions represents the highest level of maturity and is only possible through widespread delegation of power and authority.

5. Shared participation in problem solving and decision making stimulates active involvement in productivity and creative thinking.

6. Management is by objectives.

7. Merit is the basis of reward.

8. Norms and standards support personal and organizational excellence.

9. Learning from work experience is through critique. (Blake- Mouton, 1985a, p. 101-102; and 1978, p. 132-133)

Versatility. Each situation a manager confronts is unique. The versatile manager learns a range of skills by which the same principles can be applied to different situations.... The Versatile manager is consistent, predictable, and dependable, and therefore trusted by those with whom the manager works.

> Principles undergird the practices, and managerial practices derive their validity from the principles.... The principles remain the same; the way in which they are applied is determined by the needs at hand. Such versatility requires a range of skills. (Blake- Mouton, 1985a, p. 69, 99)
>
> The '9,9' orientation is constant as a strategy of supervision. It does not shift with maturity level.... (It) is seen in the boss's openness, the manner in which proactive participation is relied upon to promote the subordinates capacity for growth in ability and willingness, and the development of teamwork in dealing with the task through mutual goal setting. (Blake- Mouton, 1982a, p. 27)
>
> Successful leaders achieve production with and through people by establishing relationships which [sic] embody these principles. (Blake- Mouton, 1982e, p. 44)

Validity of the Managerial Grid

While Blake- Mouton claim a high validity for the Grid and relate it conceptually to the works of many authors, little empirical research (statistically analyzed evidence) has been found. This researcher has reported all research identified (p. 84-87 of this dissertation). It was not possible to identify published normative data, empirical evidence of construct validity, or results of testing with other rigorous research methods.

Recent Writings

The Managerial Grid III. The Key to Leadership Excellence (Blake and Mouton, 1985a) has brought the Grid to a new level of sophistication and relevance. The writing is concise and integrated. In response to the current corporate quest for excellence and productivity, the Task construct has moved to the fore. Blake- Mouton speak of directing individual effort toward achieving organizational goals and of the personal fulfillment that individuals feel when efforts are directed toward corporate excellence (1985a, p. 135).

> The Grid is a major approach to organizational development in which the change strategies are premised upon learning to think more systematically about how to behave effectively and then to gain personal insight into concrete actions that enhance one's own effectiveness.... Grid OD is a fully integrated approach to corporate achievement because it provides the basis for bringing all aspects of the business into one manageable, coherent whole. (1985a, p. 178)

The commitment to interpersonal equality and reciprocity is basic to this most recent statement of the framework.

> Openness in the '9,9' orientation is premised on mutuality. (1985a, p. 212)
>
> The essence of sound leadership is to treat each individual as unique and as one who needs unique leadership to become committed to the organizational needs for productivity and creativity. (1985a, p. 98)
>
> A '9,9' oriented manager deals with his or her boss in the same way as with colleagues or subordinates. (1985a, p. 83)
>
> When (principles) are brought into daily use, boss- subordinate interactions are characterized by mutual trust and respect. Trust and respect, in other words, are the end results of sound behavior. (1985a, p. 100)
>
> Viewed in one perspective, participation is a human right, something that should always be honored as a condition of freedom, autonomy, and self- responsibility. (1985a, p. 102)

The authors anticipate that the framework will have widespread influence. "The individual and collective challenge is to apply these... systems of leadership thought and action to the home, nursery, school, university, shop floor, executive suite, and so on.... It may be possible to establish a foundation for a society that is ordered, disciplined, creative, satisfying, and capable of fostering healthy, spontaneous reactions" (1985a, p. 231).

Other recent publications by Blake- Mouton have focused the Grid toward processes of conflict management (1984), excellence in leadership (1986), and teamwork (Blake, Mouton, & Allen, 1987). Mouton- Blake (1984) focused the Grid toward education.

Spectacular Teamwork : How to Develop Leadership Skills for Team Success (Blake, Mouton, & Allen, 1987) uses the format of Grid styles in describing team processes produced by leadership styles and group cultures (p. 23). Effective participation is the key to sound teamwork (p. 1-15). Participation skills described include: (a) decision making, (b) objectives, (c) coordination, (d) communication, and (e) critique (p. 128- 129). Theory undergirds the "content approach." The "process approach" deals with turfdom and interpersonal matters and is critical to success. Content and process approaches must be integrated and focused into a shared vision (p. 189). The prescription is "participation with action toward shared goals" (p. 171). Dimensions of teamwork are: (a) power and authority, (b) structure and differentiation, (c) norms and standards, (d) goals and objectives, (e) feedback and critique, and (f) morale and cohesion (p. 144).

With team synergy, the whole is greater than the sum of its parts (p. 6). Synergy emerges when a goal orientation is integrated with trust and mutual support (p. 9). Scales for diagnosing an organization deal with: (a) directions, (b) meetings, (c) conflict, (d) objectives, (e) innovation, (f) communication, (g) job descriptions, (h) delegation, (i) quality, (j) performance appraisals, (k) team spirit, and (l) commitment (p. 193-207). The greatest dangers to team process are managerial self- delusion and need to maintain control. True leadership involves creation of a vision of possibilities and elicits followership (p. 186).

Research and Results

Blake and Mouton have used reports of varied research to support their claims for the "one best style." They simultaneously question the validity of Situational Leadership.

Their first strategy is to report summary information from studies done by themselves. They seldom report results of single research projects through a journal article. Results of several efforts are likely to be referenced into a comprehensive article dealing with a global question.

The study most often referenced into journal articles appears to be without title (Blake-Mouton 1981c, p. 443-446; 1982b, p. 279-282; 1982c, p. 27-29; 1982e, p. 39-40). The study asks whether Situational Leadership or the 'one best style' is the preferred way of exercising leadership. The 1973 Situational Leadership instrument LEAD- Self by Hersey-Blanchard was used. This instrument asks the the subject to respond to twelve managerial situations by choosing one of four different leadership responses based on the maturity level of the follower(s). Blake- Mouton added to each set of choices a '9,9' alternative stated in behavioral terms. Subjects were asked to rank the responses from "5 - most effective" to "1 - least effective" for dealing with each situation. The revised instrument was administered to several groups: 50 managerial personnel from 41 different companies, agencies, and institutions; 50 experienced managers attending a one- day seminar focusing on the controversy; 36 M.D.and Ph.D. mental health professionals; and 38 academic administrators from universities. Blake- Mouton argue that if experienced managers prefer the '9,9' answers significantly more often, Grid theory is a more valid approach to leadership. Regardless of the kind of organization from which respondents came, the '9,9' alternative was selected over the situational ones to a statistically significant degree. "When pitted against situationalism, the '9,9' oriented alternatives were chosen by managers, mental health professionals, and academic administrators, as the most effective way of dealing with all 12 situations for all maturity levels. These experienced managers... chose a way of exercising leadership as most effective that is unavailable to them within Situational Leadership Theory." The study was replicated with similar conclusions with managers from Australia, Brazil, Japan, Malaysia, Pakistan, The Philippines, Uraguay, and Venezuela.

A longitudinal study was done comparing two subsidiaries of the same parent company. One subsidiary was engaged in Grid Organization Development, and the matched control was not. "A ten year comparison based on annual reports revealed that the Grid- active company increased its profitability over the matched control by 400%" (Blake- Mouton, 1978; 1980, p.193-195; 1982b, p. 283).

Studies of career success, done with 716 managers in one company and 731 managers from different companies, showed that managers who advance higher in the career ladder are more likely to have a '9,9' orientation than others who do not (Blake- Mouton, 1964; 1982b, p. 283; 1980, p. 195; Hall, 1976).

The second strategy that Blake- Mouton use is to examine major research studies and analyze them into two approaches based on whether the utilization of the primary constructs is "additive" (an arithmetic combination of constructs that are independent and uncorrelated), as in Situational Leadership, or "combinative" (a combination of constructs that are interactive, interdependent, and uncorrelated), as in the Managerial Grid. The issue is how the constructs are brought together. According to Blake and Mouton, theorists utilizing the "additive" approach include Korman; Fleishman; Larson, Hunt, and Osborn; Nystrom; Hersey- Blanchard; Reddin; Fiedler; Schutz; and Leary. Research based on "additive" models is shown to produce inconsistent and inconclusive results. Theorists utilizing the "combinative" approach include Likert, "System 4"; Argyris, "Model II"; McGregor, "Theory Y"; and Blake- Mouton, '9,9'. Instruments designed from the "combinative" approach reflect the character of the interdependence of the primary constructs; they yield consistent data indicating that the preferred style results in more productive outcomes. Only the "combinative" approaches are found to have predictive value (Blake- Mouton 1981c; 1982b, p. 279; 1982c; 1982d; 1982e).

Blake and Mouton identify theorists who served on the staff of the National Training Labs during the "years of intellectual ferment and turmoil" and contributed to the origin of "one most effective style": Lewin (1951), Lippitt, R. (1940), Likert (1967), MacGregor

(1960), Argyris (1971), and Blake (1964, 1978) (Blake- Mouton, 1982b, p. 289).

A third strategy is based on an appeal to principles "that are emerging from behavioral science research." Principles are understood to provide consistency across situations, to be relevant to every situation.

Blake and Mouton have published extensively for twenty-five years. This author has checked "Research and Publications," a 13 page single spaced listing of works. Nine pages are under the heading "Research Articles (1960 to date)." Most of the articles appear to be descriptive rather than reporting empirical research data, and many appear in trade journals not readily available.

Blake- Mouton (1980) argue against reductionism and "two- sided thinking" and then attempt to relate vast bodies of knowledge to the Grid framework. The "evidence" includes comparisons that are cross- cultural, cross- disciplinary, cross- vocational, and include industrial work on productivity, medical writing about physical and mental illnesses, and articles about child rearing. Their references indicate examination of vast bodies of literature but offer minimal published empirical evidence.

Blake- Mouton establish supporting evidence through conceptual analysis of writings from the behavioral sciences. Summaries of these efforts appear in two places:

1. Table A-1. Catalog of approaches to human relationships through a Grid framework (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 219-230).
2. Catalog of approaches to human relationships through a Grid framework (Blake- Mouton, 1980, p. 206-217).

In the second summary, writings of sixty- one authors are page linked to the styles of the Managerial Grid. Fields of study represented in the analysis include psychology, social psychology, or psychiatry; political science, business, organizational behavior, or organizational development; education or social work; sociology; and philosophy.

Of one hundred dissertation abstracts analyzed by this researcher, twenty- five utilized some form of the Managerial Grid as a base for research. Seventeen had relevance to the questions addressed in this dissertation.

The predominant style was reported to be '9,9' by six researchers: Martin (1983), Begin (1981), Richardson (1980), Pedersen (1980), Scott (1980), and O'Donnell & O'Donnell (1984). Three researchers found '5,5' to be the predominant style: Gilmore (1984), Boenisch (1983), and Adelman (1980). Two researchers found the predominant style to be '1,9': Richardson (1980), and Anthony (1984). One found '1,1' to be predominant: Kryszak (1980). Boenisch found persons with '1,1' style to have significantly higher levels of stress.

Level of education, especially college or graduate training was found to correlate with higher scores on the Managerial Grid by Ahanotu (1983) and Ogbuehi (1981).

The Grid model was effective for studying mentoring; mentors were administrators who combine people and task orientations. Mentors and interns moved closer together in leadership attitudes (Martin 1983).

Scott (1980) studied teachers. He found that the higher their perception of their principal's leadership style, the higher was their own perception of their own needs fulfillment based on the Maslow framework.

The relationship between leadership style and levels of trust using Gibbs TORI was studied by Pedersen (1980). TORI variables are "trust," "openness," "realization," and "interdependence." Significant correlations between teachers' perceptions of the principal's '9,9' leadership style and each TORI variable and the total group TORI level were found. Results were interpreted to support the use of the Grid framework for teambuilding.

Reynolds (1983) was able to influence a cognitive change toward a team management approach based on the Managerial Grid framework, obtaining a significant positive difference between experimental and control groups.

Several authors found no correlation between leadership styles and demographic variables: Gilmore (1984), Begin (1981), Richardson (1980), and Erickson (1980).

The restrictive copyright policy held by Scientific Methods has discouraged the use of the Grid framework for research purposes. (See letter of May 28, 1985 from Scientific Methods, Inc., the Appendix). Results produced are not directly comparable. The problem is illustrated by an analysis of the instruments used for dissertation research. Only two researchers reported using an instrument that appeared to be the genuine Grid instrument: Ahanotu (1983) used the New Managerial Grid Rating Questionnaire, and Ogbuehi (1981) used the Managerial Grid Rating Questionnaire. The majority of researchers utilized instruments designed by Jay Hall that were based on the Managerial Grid concept: Leadership Appraisal Survey - Pederson (1980), Scott (1980); Styles of Leadership Survey - Richardson (1980), Anthony (1984); Styles of Management Inventory - Gilmore (1984), Martin (1983), Begin (1981), Glasscock (1980), Russell (1980), and Kryszak (1980); and Conflict Management Survey - Hobgood (1982). Other researchers designed their own instruments using the framework for a model (Hobgood, 1982). Reliable conclusions cannot be drawn from uneven approaches to research instrumentation.

Critique of Managerial Grid in the Literature

Critique of the Grid is basically of two types. The first type points out the limits of the Grid framework in order to introduce an alternative framework by another author. These authors approach the Grid from perspectives of values, the concept of leadership, concern for macro- organizations, and concern for paradigm. The second type centers around the limitations of the Grid as a normative framework that seems to prescribe ideal states and unattainable behaviors. Blake- Mouton have written widely in defense of the "one best style." They have received negative critique for proposing a "single solution approach" to complex problems.

Robert E. Quinn and Michael R. McGrath. Quinn and McGrath (1982a, 1982b) have authored a "Competing Values Approach" that utilizes a complex values framework. The "Competing Values Approach" enables the manager to choose values that are needed to map the processes of diagnosis and change in the present situation. They suggest that the world be viewed from a dialectical perspective in which competing values are the given. From this "values perspective" they critique the Grid.

1. The Grid offers a limited value orientation to practitioners. By focusing on the '9,9' style, it imposes rational goal and human relations values on the organization and excludes open system and internal process considerations (Quinn- McGrath, 1982a, p. 465).

2. It precludes genuine diagnosis of the state of an organization. If it is assumed that moving the organization toward a '9,9' Grid orientation is the one best solution, then diagnosis is not really diagnosis (Quinn- McGrath, 1982b, p. 478-479).

3. It contains a built in contradiction. If the organization adopts the '9,9' ideal under pressure, its people may not believe in the solution long enough to persist in its implementation (Quinn- McGrath, 1982a, p. 466).

4. It places the manager in a double- bind. While a supervisor may be rated highly on both task and people, at any given time the supervisors specific actions are likely to appear to be concerned either with people or with task. Subordinates will point out inconsistencies (Quinn- McGrath, 1982a, p. 466).

5. The normative standard of the Grid may become a value base for intergroup manipulation. Over time subordinates may learn to use behavioral concepts to exert their own influence (Quinn- McGrath, 1982a, p. 466).

6. Grid OD may not always be the ideal organizational condition or even possible to achieve. "They have left us with a primary focus on single solutions... While production and people are both to be valued, it does not always follow that they always must be or can be consistently or simultaneously maximized in managerial choice" (Quinn- McGrath, 1982a, p. 466).

7. [lacking research documentation] it is questionable whether the empirical evidence available demonstrates the validity of the claims (Quinn- McGrath, 1982a, p. 465).

Blake and Mouton respond that Quinn and McGrath have not understood the real issues involved, lack understanding of what Grid Organization Development is all about, and are unfamiliar with the basic literature (Blake- Mouton, 1982a, p. 475).

This researcher notes that:

1. The pressure for adoption by Blake- Mouton is balanced by the use of participation to involve the learner in the process.
2. Blake- Mouton speak of a qualitatively different reality, not the '+,+' combination (paternalism) that would prevail if the double- bind were to occur.
3. This complex world needs flexibility and ability to respond to needs of the immediate situation. It also needs targets and guidance systems and the necessary means and resources to decrease the gap between the ideal and the real. Values are indeed a crucial variable. It is not clear whether the complex values map offered by Quinn and McGrath presents a better target than the integrated framework by Blake and Mouton.
4. The "Competing Values Approach" treats "productivity, efficiency" and "cohesion, morale" as opposite ends of a range. They fail to deal with questions of whether these values are actually opposites, independent and uncorrelated, additive or combinative, or whether they are basically values at all.
5. What little direct research has been done to validate the Blake- Mouton framework has been done by Blake- Mouton and associates. Their position would be stronger if their results were verified by other scholars working independently.

John B. Miner. John B. Miner (1982a, 1982b) suggests that the concept of leadership itself has outlived its usefulness. He takes the position that small group models and the group dynamics paradigm are no longer functional and have limited research about leadership for many years. In massive, complex, hierarchical organizations, the concept of "inducement'" is more appropriate. He proposes to deal with "aspects of inducement, system structure, and process at the macro level." Hierarchical systems of any size combine many subsystems, characterized by variable structuring; there is need to deal with system interfaces and interchanges. Inducement is part of the process of control and is mediated through the organization by subsystem interfaces.

Miner is basically supportive of the Grid framework and feels it has potential for compatibility with his own work (p. 536). He suggests three strategies by which Blake-Mouton might strengthen their framework: (a) continue to sharpen operationalization [sic] of the constructs; (b) continue to deal with construct validity problems of both constructs; (c) utilize a primary focus on motivation rather than behavior style. Miner comments about the problem of concept formation, "Under certain conditions, 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' are not uncorrelated, but rather yield r's on the order of .50, and these conditions would appear to be typical of effective hierarchic systems" (p. 538).

Grid authors reject these suggestions on the basis that Miner "fails to recognize the ... difference in concept formation and variable coupling which [sic] are basic to understanding 'paternalism' and synergistic leadership" (Blake- Mouton, 1982b, p. 539).

Don E. Beck. Don E. Beck (1982) writes of "Living Systems" thought, a new paradigm, and suggests that the world view out of which Blake- Mouton work is no longer adequate. In "their Newtonian perspective," organizations are "static, linear, and hierarchical, with a clear division of labor and differentiated levels of responsibility and status." He thinks that both the Grid and Situational Leadership represent the best of this tradition. It is a world in which nature is characterized by regularities, and in which a scientific approach will produce a theory of leadership. He cites the vocabulary in which Blake- Mouton write: (a) behavioral science principles, (b) scientifically- based discipline, (c) science of leadership, and (d) principles that undergird leadership as principles of physics undergird engineering. This "scientific thinking applied to management" has been useful during the industrial revolution and will... be useful in developing countries.

Beck's work pushes to move beyond this mechanistic approach to a new paradigm, a more wholistic approach that is aware of the essential interrelatedness and interdependency of all phenomena - physical, biological, psychological, and cultural. He proposes a "Living Systems" view in which function is controlled by dynamic relations within a situation, and organizations are seen as synergistic processes in constant motion with the arrangement of people controlled by the flow of the function (p. 79-80).

Critique of Managerial Grid

As a framework dealing with leadership style and team process in an organization development mode, the Grid is strong. The two primary constructs are described in ways that are comprehensive and easily understood. The applications are reasonable and personal. The framework enables the manager, with feedback from his associates, to adjust his own style, and has potential for impacting the climate, structure, and working patterns of the entire organization. Theoretical content seems consistent with much writing and some research. It presents a mature statement of human relations theory applied to management in an organization. The Grid is credible.

The approach is general. Some may wish for more specificity. A manager hoping for specific task skills to use in a particular situation will find a perspective from which to seek further staff development. The primary constructs lack published operational definitions.

Blake- Mouton's Grid has two strengths. First, it is built on a strong concept of organization. The organization is the unit of development (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 180). Organization is understood to include: (a) purpose - production of things or services, (b) people - individuals, each unique in personality and values, (c) power - the hierarchical arrangement of roles, and (d) culture - precedents, rules, and traditions unique to that system. The organizational culture influences relationships in ways often outside executive control. Real organizational change is change in organizational culture (Blake- Mouton, 1978, p. 177).

The second strength is that of providing a strong theoretical base for healthy interpersonal relationships. The framework is built on the assumption of mutuality and reciprocity between individuals. This equality of interpersonal status generates trust and enables persons to function freely with each other in a hierarchical setting in which their roles and positional power are very unequal. The status between persons is understood to be the foundation of interpersonal communication (Blake- Mouton, 1980, p. 39). Communication is the common denominator of the nine Principles.

A Versatile Framework? The primary problem of the "one best style" is that it has been interpreted by its authors as the "one best style"! They defend and promote their framework with persistence. Article after article declares that they are right and other authors, who use an additive ('x+x') formula or a situational or contingency approach, are wrong. The irony is that while so much of the framework seems right (accurate), the authors seem trapped by their rightness (normative assumptions). Blake and Mouton seem at times to be the primary promoters of their framework. Adjectives used by others to describe their style are not complimentary: preachments, dogmatic, black- and- white, win-lose, stubborn, right! The style with which they have defended their work raises doubt whether they have themselves fully moved beyond the authoritarian stance they decry.

Convinced that '9,9' will solve problems existing in an organizational setting, they suggest that use of Grid management might have prevented the 1980 Detroit depression.

> The Grid can be used to renew personal effort in the productive goals of a corporation.... There is one best way to manage.... Interpersonal and intergroup conflict and its mismanagement is the #1 problem confronting organizations today.... Giving the worker products to work on that he can be committed to is half the solution. The other half is quality of supervision which [sic] stirs commitment and involvement that are potentially there. (Blake- Mouton, 1981a, p. 67)

The article adeptly presents Grid thought but lacks sensitivity to complexities of the economic system that contributed to the depression.

Within the Grid framework itself are ample justifications for a more versatile approach: the implicit norms of mutuality and reciprocity, emphasis on participation and delegation, the norm of confrontation with reflective listening, the importance of critique and feedback. The Grid has potential for developing a sophisticated style of leadership - dedicated to excellence, involved through dialogue, admitting its own limits and seeking enrichment of its own content, and committed to continuing development consistent with emerging insight.

In The Managerial Grid III (Blake- Mouton, 1985) the words "one best style" have been replaced by the words "sound leadership," "one sound way," or "effective leadership behavior." This recent book simply presents and supports the framework.

The Grid is immersed in cultural change. The Grid is focused toward the corporate setting that demands excellence, productivity, and leadership and is dealing with the "me generation" that expects instant success. One wonders if the corporation, competing to survive, will choose the longer term perspective as it plans for its own continuing growth and strength. Will the human relations approach, rooted in personal equality, appeal to the current generation of young adults who seem foremost to seek personal welfare?

Principles? Blake- Mouton base the Grid framework on "scientific principles" of human behavior that are used to justify the thought and frame the training designs. While working authoritatively from principles, Blake- Mouton write that the authority- obedience model is no longer viable (1981a, p. 60). The principles they have identified are elements of every situation with which a manager must deal. They are central both to the Managerial Grid and to organizational practice.

It is questionable whether the Principles are principles in the empirical scientific sense. There is hardly the quantity or quality of broad based empirical data available to support this status.

Several assumptions are inherent in the framework that deserve to be developed and might reach the stature of principles: (a) interpersonal equality as the foundation of human relations, (b) communication as the intersection of all interpersonal interaction, (c) mission accomplishment as formative in nature and crucial to organizational survival, and (d) the role of leadership and its expression in leadership style.

Leadership or Management? Blake and Mouton make no effort to distinguish leadership from management. They address managers, speak the language of management functions, and assume leadership to be a subset of the managerial role (1978, p. 102-113).

Leadership is dealt with as an interactive process. The chapter "Resolving Contradictions Among Leadership Theories" from The Managerial Grid III (Blake-Mouton, 1985a, p. 197-223) contains statements that help interpret their leadership perspectives. Leadership occurs when two or more persons seek to achieve a goal and involves determining a course of action while achieving coordination (p. 197). Their purpose is not to define leadership but to "produce a 'map' that serves as a valid representation of what happens in actual relationships between people who are engaged in shared activity (p. 198). Leadership is a very complex human activity that achieves results with and through others by an underlying process that establishes direction and permits coordination (p. 198). "Leadership is not a case of either- or, but of infinite variations" (p. 207). Leadership is a process characterized by concern for production and concern for people. Leadership can not be experienced without a task or in a solo situation. "Concerns" are *within* leaders and members as coparticipant- observers of the happening and cannot be separated and dealt with without losing the phenomenon they describe (p. 208). "The '9,9' orientation is premised on mutuality... The interdependence between the task and people dimensions is significant for describing a mutual influence process. As yet there is no functional language to describe the coparticipants in a relationship when both (or several) engage proactively in accomplishing a task" (p. 212).

For Blake- Mouton, leadership is a complex, underlying, interactive process of mutual influence between / among two or more persons who, through common direction and coordination, seek to accomplish a shared task. While the leadership concept is here embedded in a management context, it has potential for relevance in many other settings.

Scientific? The company operated by Blake- Mouton is Scientific Methods, Inc. They claim a scientific method, support their framework from literature and research, and use logic to defend their framework and critique the work of others. They believe that effective behavior is itself based on scientific principles or laws. "Behavioral science principles... lie beneath human conduct, provid[ing] guidelines for soundness, and mak[ing] it predictable also" (1978, p. 129). They believe the study of leadership to be an applied behavioral science. While some claims seem valid, questions must be raised about the scientific nature of their work:

1. Can the framework be validated empirically if the primary constructs cannot be operationally defined and measured? Could a third construct, the "qualitative difference" produced by the '9,9' leadership style, be measured? Is the "qualitative difference" a "coupling established in thought" or does it produce some other output variable such as "synergy"? Can operational definitions be developed for "synergy"?

2. What is the role of empirical research (statistically analyzed verification) in Grid methodology? Do authors compare data from pretests and posttests? Are control groups used to verify results of training programs? What changes occur? What criteria are used to identify changes? Which research designs are longitudinal? What is measured?

3. To what degree does the Grid framework account for relevant and / or intervening variables? How do intervening variables impact utilization of '9,9'?

4. Does the Grid remain open to development? Is research a shared process? Are questions generated by application of the Grid framework available for research by the broader community of scholars? Are instruments, research designs, and results of work by Scientific Methods available for use and verification by others? Are norms or validity and reliability data available? Does this team of authors seek out, critique, and integrate relevant research results that differ from their own? Have Blake- Mouton helped identify the "cutting edges" for development of practice grounded in valid theory?

Scientific Methods, Inc. maintains a company policy that prohibits use of their basic instruments for research by persons outside their company. When this author requested permission to use the Grid instruments in this dissertation research, the reply indicated that Grid instruments are not available for use outside the context of the Seminar.

> The company found it necessary to establish a firm policy prohibiting us from granting permission to reproduce sections of The Managerial Grid or our training instruments. ... The instruments are part of the copyrighted Seminar design.
>
> This policy would generally prohibit us from granting you permission to use this material as you suggest.... While they have been tested for construct, face, and prediction validity and have been found to have high validity on all these counts, this is some what irrelevant since they are purely training instruments, applied to enable a manager to explore his own values and styles and were never intended for use in testing or data gathering. (Letter of May 28, 1985, Appendix)

Copyright laws protect the right of authors to gain profit from use of original materials. Copyright privileges do not extend to control or protection of thought; the validity of an idea is not a financial matter. The Fair Use portion of the copyright law reads:

> The fair use of copyrighted work, including such use by reproduction in copies ..., for purposes such as criticism, comment, news reporting, teaching (including multiple copies for classroom use), scholarship, or research, is not an infringement of copyright. In determining whether the use made of a work in any particular case is a fair use the factors to be considered shall include -
> 1. the purpose and character of the use, including whether such use is of a commercial nature or is for nonprofit educational purposes;
> 2. the nature of the copyrighted work;
> 3. the amount and substantiality of the portion used in relation to the copyrighted

> work as a whole; and
> 4. the effect of the use upon the potential market for or value of the copyrighted work.
>
> (The Copyright Act of 1976. Public Law 94-553, 94th Congress, 90 Stat. 2541. Sec. 101. Title 17 of the United States Code, entitled Copyrights. Sec. 107. Limitations on Exclusive Rights: Fair Use.)

While Scientific Methods must develop and operate by company policy, company policy cannot be used to protect material that has been published and marketed to the public from non- profit use by the public, i.e., scholarly examination or use for research. While Grid instruments with training designs are surely the property of the company, the development of theory from the balance of Task and Maintenance is the prerogative of the larger community. Support for this position also comes from Borg and Gall, "Under the doctrine of 'fair use' the researcher can copy and quote a reasonable part (short passages) of a primary or secondary source without concern for copyright infringement" (p. 812).

Confrontation and debate. In one sense, the Grid framework is dynamic: It recommends confrontation to give feedback, stimulate evaluation of the situation, and improve effectiveness. "Human values of candor, conflict confrontation, and an experimental attitude make it possible for a '9,9' team to constantly learn how to improve its effectiveness" (1985a, p. 117). Confrontation is the primary recommended mode of dealing with conflict and moving the project to the next level. Confrontation may be a clue to understanding the debate. By writing as they have, Blake and Mouton highlight and call attention to differences that they perceive, generating interest and inviting exploration.

A question of logic. The recommended ideal style is '9,9.' It is ideal because it is an equal combination of a high level of concern for people with a high level of concern for production. '5,5' and '1,1' are also equal combinations of medium and low levels of concern for people and concern for production, yet they do not produce the "qualitative difference." Why? Is the "qualitative difference" produced primarily by *high* levels of each construct (does the "combination" occur only with intensity) ?

Full human development. The Grid framework supports and seeks "individual growth stimulated in ways that are geared to organizational contribution" (1978, p. 102). The skills described in the text seem monolithic and primarily related to the work setting. Exploration of the full range of human development literature, including child development, cognitive and affective development, and life long human development, might expand the concepts that are embedded in the framework and enable enhancement of theory and practice.

Balance of the primary constructs. The Managerial Grid III (Blake- Mouton, 1985a) is a revision in response to the current corporate push for excellence, productivity, and leadership. It reflects an unmistakable shift toward the importance of task accomplishment and toward corporate success as a primary good. The boss is there to achieve results (p. 82, 83, 89). The boss relates in order to accomplish the task (p. 93). An employee who does not perform may expect demotion or termination (p. 94). The level of control is up (p. 94). Productivity must be maintained at a high level (p. 95). Care must be taken to advance the interests of the corporation (p. 96, 98, 103). Users of this revision of the Grid may well ask whether concern for people is still of equal importance to concern for production, or whether, in response to popular demand and the need to survive, the original tenants of the framework have been revised.

Theory? While the authors describe the Managerial Grid and each of the styles as "theory," the approach is probably more accurately termed a framework. A framework is a simple structure that integrates a set of concepts and enables their application in practical settings. "The basic aim of science is theory... A theory is a set of interrelated constructs (concepts), definitions, and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting phenomena" (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 8-9). A theory implies support by a body of empirical evidence. It is questionable whether empirical evidence or prediction is possible where primary constructs cannot be measured. As development of frameworks that utilize the primary constructs Task and Maintenance continues, all such frameworks may contribute to an emerging theory of human systems.

Response to change. Life is process - always becoming, never finished. The Grid will be impacted by change. Insights must be realigned toward coherence with emerging knowledge and cultures. Corporations will continue to seek excellence as they deal with fresh generations of employees. Theories will continue to influence human understanding of community and organizations: systems theory, full human development theory, and situationalism and contingency theory. The information age, based in high technology with the accompanying need for high touch, will make traditional management skills obsolete. The use of technology to deliver training will change our expectations about learning settings and classroom based methodologies. Only empirically verifiable principles and valid and reliable constructs will be carried into the next generation of leadership theory. In this setting of change, the continuing viability of the Managerial Grid will depend upon the validity of its content and the capacity of its authors to receive input to the framework and to develop the framework so that it adjusts itself in response to that input.

Summary

The Managerial Grid presents a credible understanding of the way in which the primary constructs Task and Maintenance contribute to leadership style and enable a collection of individuals to function with synergistic team process. Blake- Mouton state that the manner of concept formation is the basic issue between the Managerial Grid and other leadership frameworks. While methods of concept formation may be basic to differences between these frameworks, other issues are embedded in the Managerial Grid.

A primary issue is the genuinely scientific nature of the framework. While content is supported by a large body literature, questions remain whether the framework has been empirically validated. Primary constructs are not operationally defined; styles are specified but instruments are not available for research. While Spectacular Teamwork (Blake-Mouton, 1987) provides scales for measuring team process, no report is made of standardization of the scales. The substance of the "qualitative difference" ("a coupling established in thought") is fuzzy. This researcher found no studies of construct validity reported. Questions remain whether company policy supports further open scientific development of the framework.

Other issues flow from the normative nature of the framework. Do we deal normatively with *process* ? Leadership is a *process* of mutual influence! In a culture where authority models are less viable, the framework continues to point to the ideal. What is the place of a principled approach in the midst of a cultural shift toward contingent, situational, and/or process thought?

Situational Leadership ™,© , Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard

Overview

Situational Leadership ™,© developed shortly after the Managerial Grid. It's site of origin was Ohio State University where Ken Blanchard, a new member of the faculty, in 1967 began collaboration with Paul Hersey on the development of the framework (Zemke, 1982, p. 61).

Content of the Situational Leadership framework has been published in three major forms. The first publication was the article "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership," Training and Development Journal, 1969. Second, Hersey's doctoral dissertation (Hersey, 1976) was submitted to University of Massachusetts, with Blanchard as his director. The dissertation content parallels the outline of the text. The dissertation statement of the framework is unsupported by empirical evidence. The third and primary statement of the framework is the text Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 4th ed. (Hersey- Blanchard, 1982b; [prior editions in 1969, 1972, 1977]). The 1982 edition is the primary source for this conceptual analysis. [1]

The Situational Leadership model (Figure 2) deals exclusively with the manager's behavior in relation to a subordinate as the manager attempts to influence task accomplishment. Situational Leadership utilizes the two primary constructs from the Ohio State leadership studies ("initiating structure" and "consideration") and operationally defines them as "task behavior" and "relationship behavior." The primary situational constraint is the task relevant maturity of the subordinate.

Four leadership styles are recommended to influence task accomplishment by the subordinate. The model plots a sequence of leader behavior moving in a curvilinear pattern from high task- low relationship (Q1) to low task- low relationship (Q4). The most effective leadership style matches the behavior style of the Situational leader with the maturity level of the subordinate. Reinforcement theory (B. F.Skinner, 1969) is the influence strategy of the framework. Situational Leadership guides verifiable manager behaviors rather than attempting to influence attitudes or values. The stated end goal of Situational Leadership is the task relevant autonomy of the subordinate.

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[1] All page references in the conceptual analysis of Situational Leadership in this chapter are to the text: Hersey, Paul and Kenneth H. Blanchard (1982b). Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 4th Ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

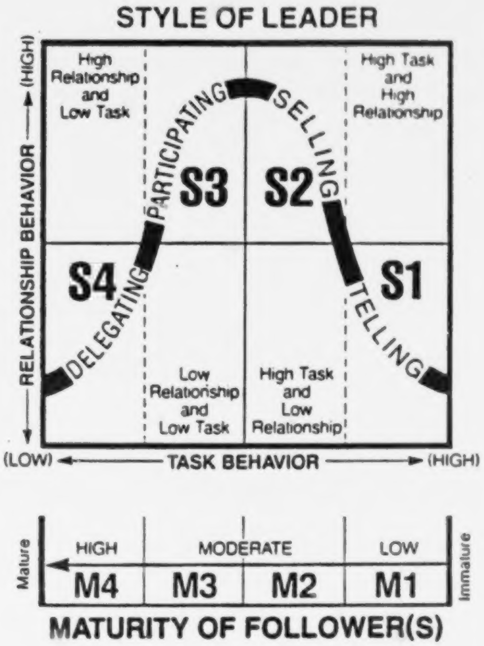
STYLE OF LEADER
High Relationship and Low Task
High Task and High Relationship
PARTICIPATING
SELLING
S3
S2
S4
S1
DELEGATING
TELLING
Low Relationship and Low Task
High Task and Low Relationship
RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR
(LOW)
(HIGH)
TASK BEHAVIOR
(LOW)
(HIGH)
HIGH
MODERATE
LOW
Mature
Immature
M4
M3
M2
M1
MATURITY OF FOLLOWER(S)

Figure 2. Model of Situational Leadership. (Hersey- Blanchard, 1982b, p. 152)

Leadership style is the behavior pattern that the person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of others as perceived by others (p. 95-96). Accurate assessment of styles is produced by gathering perceptions from both self and others.

Situational Leadership insists that there are no principles of human behavior nor one best style of leadership. One of the four Situational styles will most effectively influence any given situation. While developed from and primarily directed toward practice (p.149-150), the authors of Situational Leadership hope to make a significant contribution to management literature (p. 311).

Purpose

The goal of the manager in working with the subordinate is maximum performance through optimal task relevant maturity. The text emphasizes human skill development. Managers need to develop "know how" in "human skills." The most important single skill for an executive is the ability to get along with people. Human skills are the single common denominator that makes the crucial difference at all levels (p. 3, 5, 8). Human skills include understanding past behavior and being able to predict future behavior. The manager must "develop skills in directing, changing, and controlling behavior" (p. 9, 10).

Constructs With Anticipated Results

Task. Task accomplishment is the responsibility of the manager. The manager works with and through people to accomplish organizational goals (p. 3).

Task is defined as the extent to which a leader is likely to organize and define the role of a subordinate, to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished (p. 96, 152). In order to accomplish tasks, the manager specifies the goals to be accomplished, organizes the work situation, sets time lines, provides specific directions, and specifies and requires regular reporting on progress (p. 160). Task behavior involves one way communication. The manager "tells" the subordinate (p. 162).

Relationship. Relationship is defined as "the extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (subordinates or followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support, 'psychological strokes,' and facilitating behaviors" (p. 96). Relationship behavior consists of positive reinforcement plus socio- emotional support (p. 155). The framework operationally defines only reinforcement. Other relationship behaviors are listed: providing support and encouragement, involving others in give and take discussions about work activities, facilitating interactions with others, seeking out and listening to opinions and concerns, and providing feedback on accomplishments (p. 160). The framework deals only with dimensions of relationship that are behaviors.

The framework utilizes relationship as a means to task accomplishment. Relationship (reinforcement) enables the manager to get the task done. It is inappropriate on the job to deal with matters of personal concern (p. 241), even though these matters are inevitably present and may negatively affect job performance (p. 213). Two- way communication, most often interpreted as active listening, is appropriate for relationship behavior (p. 152, 229, 240-241). Active listening is seeking out and listening to people's opinions and concerns, which the manager does in order to facilitate task accomplishment.

Positive strokes and reinforcement are the primary behavioral expression of the term relationship (p. 202). The text devotes almost one fourth of its space to developing techniques of behavioral reinforcement (p. 193-265, a total of 72 pages). These techniques are described in Chapter 9 "Developing Human Resources," Chapter 10 "Constructive Discipline," and Chapter 11 "Building Effective Relationships." Skills include positive reinforcement, punishment, negative reinforcement, extinction, and schedule of reinforcement (p. 208). The pattern for developing task relevant maturity in the subordinate moves from continuous reinforcement to periodic reinforcement to self reinforcement (p.

210) as the individual matures toward autonomy, self- motivation, and self- management.

The terms "socio- emotional support," "psychological strokes," and "facilitating behaviors" appear throughout the text. This researcher has found no definitions or behavioral specifications for the terms, nor are the terms indexed or defined.

Hersey and Blanchard acknowledge that "communication" is a key concept in all behavioral science (p. 162). The index lists no pages for "communication," but indicates one block of pages for "communication patterns" dealing with the flow of messages among members of a group involved in a change process (p. 276-279).

"Feedback" reinforces behaviors and is given only in relation to the quality of performance. Achievement motivated people want task- relevant (not social or personal) feedback. They want to know the score about how they are doing (p. 39). In a disciplinary intervention, the manager is advised to "tell the person specifically what went wrong" (p. 219).

The text does not conceive relationship to include mutual expression of emotion. The manager is cautioned in several places against the risks involved in revealing his own feelings (p. 217, 219, 263, 311). In a situation of contracting with a subordinate for leadership style, the manager may "engage in give and take between superior and subordinate" or may choose to "remain tight- lipped and aloof" (p. 263). Self- disclosure is appropriate only when organizationally relevant (p. 241), and too much emotion is considered dysfunctional (p. 218). Knowledge is easier to change than attitudes because attitudes have an emotional component (p. 272).

While the manager is advised seldom or never to reveal his own feelings, he / she is to be open to feedback from subordinates. The manager is to encourage others to "be open and level and give relevant feedback...verbal and non- verbal" (p. 239). The manager must receive feedback from people because feedback "is the breakfast of champions" (p. 240), must ensure that others are free to talk (p. 241), and is the communication link that allows feelings of subordinates to move upward in the organization (p. 300). The authors conclude that sharing theories may enable people to "give each other feedback and help in a very rational, unemotional way that effects behavior" (p. 311).

The manager is encouraged to increase socio- emotional support as a positive reinforcement to reward desired behavior (p. 307). It is not good for supportive behavior to reward poor performance (p. 153). Strokes used indiscriminately erode the manager's referent power (p. 187). The manager should not pat staff on the back before they have earned it (p. 201). If a manager increases socio- emotional support without performance, he may be viewed as a "soft touch" (p. 203). Positive reinforcement should be given for performance but not because of who the person is (p. 220). The manager is cautioned that "the initial use of a high relationship mode makes it difficult to later use other styles" (p. 256) and "while high relationship works, S1 and S4 (low relationship modes) may be necessary to maximize leadership" (p. 252).

Expressed needs for socio- emotional support indicate immaturity (p. 205-206, 210). "As followers reach high levels of maturity, the leader... decreases relationship behavior. With mature people, the need for socio- emotional support is no longer as important as the need for autonomy" (p. 155-156, 308).

Concept formation. The primary constructs (task behavior and relationship behavior) are independent and are plotted on separate axes. The constructs do not combine (form another reality). They are separate realities and therefore may be used in any combination of quantities. Hersey- Blanchard do not indicate in the text whether the primary constructs are correlated or uncorrelated (p. 85-91, 95-100, 105).

Quadrants and styles. Quadrants of the model display leadership styles.[1] The prescriptive curvilinear sequence begins at Q1 and moves toward Q4. The sequence relates to the maturity of the followers. The styles of leaders are the consistent behavior patterns that they use when working with and through other people as perceived by those people. The authors use the words style and personality interchangeably (p. 126).

"Telling" (Q1) utilizes high task and low relationship, emphasizing directive behaviors. Low relationship is expressed in one- way communication patterns; the manager is warned to avoid supportive behaviors (p. 153). "Strong direction with immature followers is appropriate if they are to become productive" (p. 155). In the beginning the subordinate is assumed to be unwilling and unable to accomplish the task. As the person becomes more willing, the manager may move to Q2.

"Selling" (Q2) involves the use of high task and high relationship behaviors. Still providing high direction, the manager utilizes supportive behavior to reinforce willingness and enthusiasm. The maturity level is moderate; the person is unable but willing, lacks skills but is confident. Through two- way communication, the leader tries to get the follower psychologically to "buy into" desired behaviors. "Followers will usually go along with a decision if they understand the reason for the decision and if their leader also offers some help and direction" (p. 153).

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[1] Hersey-Blanchard (p. 154-155) suggest that Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4 be used to designate basic styles and that S1, S2, S3, S4 be used when the style choice is appropriately matched with maturity level, thus being "effective." This paper will use the Q designations unless the material is being quoted.

"Participating" (Q3) is for moderate to high maturity. The follower is able but unwilling (lacks confidence) to do what the leader wants. The leader will open the door (with two- way communication and active listening) and support the follower's efforts to use the ability that has been learned. At the leader's discretion, the leader and follower may share in decision making. Here the role of the leader is facilitation. The leader in Q3 is supportive and partially directive (p. 153).

"Delegating" (Q4) is for high maturity. A follower at this level is both able and willing (confident) to do the task and will provide his / her own reinforcement. It involves low relationship and low task behaviors; the leader provides little direction and little support. While the leader may identify the problem, the responsibility for carrying out plans is given to the mature follower. "They are permitted to run the show and decide on the how, when, and where" (p. 154).

> With very mature people, the need for socioemotional support is no longer as important as the need for autonomy.... Leaders can prove their confidence and trust...by [leaving] them more and more on their own. It is not that there is less mutual trust and friendship between leader and follower; in fact, there is more, but it takes less supportive behavior on the leader's part to prove this to mature followers. (p. 156)

If Q4 is used inappropriately, with persons either unable or unwilling, it might better be described as "abdication" or "withdrawal" rather than "delegating" (p. 155).

Related Concepts

Maturity. Task relevant maturity consists of ability (knowledge and skill) that may be developed through education or experience and willingness or psychological maturity (confidence and commitment) that may fluctuate (p. 157, 261). The manager's goal / role is to bring the subordinate to full task relevant potential, i.e., to develop a subordinate who is both competent and committed. At this point, the subordinate is autonomous and needs little further task or relationship behavior from the manager. Growing and developing people to their full task potential is the key to long term effectiveness of an organization (p. 191, 232). "Managers need to devote time to nurture leadership potential, motivation, morale, climate, commitment to objectives, and the decision making, communication, and problem solving skills of their people" (p. 193).

Maturity processes can also be regressive (p. 156). Decreases in maturity may be the result of "high strength competing responses in the environment," such as a desire for recreation or troubled family relationships (p. 212). If regression occurs, the manager moves back through the quadrants to a style consistent with the current maturity level of the subordinate.

Motivation. Personality is the sum of habit patterns. Basic personality is determined early in life; the longer behavior is reinforced, the more patterned it becomes and the more difficult to change. For that reason, the payback is much greater when working with younger people (p. 25-26, 141).

Motives are... needs, wants, drives, or impulses within the individual. Motives are directed toward goals that may be conscious or subconscious. "Motives are the 'why's' of behavior. They arouse and maintain activity and determine the general direction of behavior of an individual" (p. 15). "Motives" and "needs" are interchangeable.

Hersey and Blanchard add to this behavioral approach pieces of several other frameworks: self-actualization from Maslow (p. 26-38), achievement motivation from McClelland (p. 38-40), interpersonal relationships on the job from Mayo (p. 45-47), Theory Y from McGregor (p. 48-50), humanistic values from Argyris (p. 52-56), hygiene factors from Herzberg (p. 56-61), System 4 from Likert (p. 63-67), and "I'm OK, You're OK" from Berne (p. 67-78). Little effort is made to integrate assumptions from humanistic psychology (the roots of which are Freudian) with the behavioral approach.

Situational. The Situational Leader is flexible, choosing his style in relation to the situation at hand. Situational variables, other than maturity of follower, which are mentioned in Chapter 5 "Determining Effectiveness" and Chapter 6 "Diagnosing the Environment" include (a) causal variables: power and authority, time demands, technology, management decisions, policies and structure of organization, (b) intervening variables: commitment to objectives, motivation and morale, communications, conflict resolution, decision making, problem solving, and (c) output variables: production, output, costs, sales, earnings, management- union relations, and turnover (p. 112). Additional variables are style and expectations of all co- workers and demands of the job (p. 125-134, 135-139); cultural differences of followers (p. 110); physical stature of leader, sex, and changes in society such as youth revolution, civil rights movement, ecology and consumer movements, and concern for quality of life (p. 139); as well as boss's style or development of crises (p. 158). Effective managers adapt their leader behavior to the situation. Effectiveness depends on the leader, the follower, and the environment (situational variables) (p. 95-103). While the framework identifies many situational variables, the only situational variable that is operationally defined is the task relevant maturity of the follower.

Leadership and management definitions. "Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal accomplishment in a given situation" (p. 177). "The leadership style of an individual is the behavior pattern that person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of others as perceived by others" (p. 95). The leader accomplishes goals with and through people (p. 3, 84). Leadership occurs any time one individual attempts to influence the behavior of another individual or a group, regardless of the reason. Leadership relates less to ethics than to attempts to influence behavior. It may be for one's own goals or those of others, and the goals may or may not be congruent with organizational goals (p. 3).

"Leadership" is a broader concept than "management;" management is a special kind of leadership in which the accomplishment of organizational goals is paramount. The key difference between leadership and management lies in the word "organization" (p. 3, 83-84, 106). The common denominator, crucial at all levels, is human skill (p. 5). While the careful reader can find these terms defined as above, Hersey and Blanchard seem to use the words interchangeably in the text, for example see pages 111 and 127.

Participative management. Situational Leadership provides for participation by the subordinate only through the process of goal setting or management by objectives. While acknowledging that participation is likely to increase the commitment of the subordinate, the text advises the leader to carefully calculate the risks, including the implied shared responsibility for success (p. 260). Participative management techniques may be discretely used in Q3 and Q4 where the higher task maturity of the subordinate increases the probability of success (p. 169).

The text displays an ambivalence (both positive and negative response) toward participative management (p. 47, 54-56, 62, 119, 273, 275-276, 310). The authors urge caution in relation to personal values and self- actualization. "A manager's value system determines whether individuals should have a share in making the decisions that affect them or whether the person who is paid to assume responsibility should personally carry the burden of decision making" (p. 128). Hersey- Blanchard warn that "While participation tends to satisfy affiliation and esteem needs... self actualization may not result from participation. [Self actualization] most often occurs in a work environment where people are given a job that allows them opportunity for achievement, growth and development, and challenge" (p. 169).

Management by objectives rests on a philosophy of management that emphasizes an integration between external control by managers and self- control by subordinates (p. 119). "Management by objectives may become a powerful tool in gaining mutual commitment and high productivity for an organization in which management realizes this type of involvement of subordinates is appropriate in its situation" (p. 121). The ambivalence toward participative management is consistent with the level of control that the Situational leader must maintain.

Power. Power is the prerogative of the leader, the leader's potential for influencing the behavior of followers (p. xviii, 176). It is the resource that enables a leader to induce compliance from others (p. 36, 177). Two types of power, position power and personal power, form an interactive influence system (p. 107-108, 177, 186). Position power is given by the heirarchy from above and consists of coercive, connection, reward, and legitimate forms of power. Personal power expresses respect and commitment from followers and comes from below. Personal power consists of referent, information, and expert forms of power. Position power is often more important to the Situational leader than personal power (p. 108).

The effectiveness of a leader is both a matter of style and of power. Power bases should be consistent with maturity levels of individuals or groups the leader is trying to influence (p. 190). Power is volatile: it is given, it can be removed. It must be used if it is not to erode (p. 187). The perception of power that others have is more crucial than the actual power. The response of a follower is based on personal perception rather than on reality (p. 186).

Power is sometimes expressed as force, particularly with low maturity followers. It is hard to change knowledge, attitudes, behaviors, or performance when force or compliance is not a factor (p. 2, 142). Leaders must sacrifice short- term friendship for long- term respect if they are interested in the development of people (p. 108). Coercive power ... can induce compliance from a follower low in maturity (p. 183). An effective "Telling" (Sl) style depends on having coercive power. If leaders are not seen as being able to deliver punishments and sanctions, their use of that style is limited (p. 188). Force or compliance is... another mechanism for inducing change (p. 281).

The power of the follower is never considered.

Control. A high level of control is essential for the Situational leader. Control is a function of both task and relationship. The ideal pattern is described as a gradual developmental movement "from leader control (S1) to partial control by follower (S2) to equal control (S2 and S3) to partial control by leader (S3) and finally to follower control (S4)" (p. 308). However, the leader maintains final accountability and therefore final control. Should regression occur (the subordinate not perform to the leader's expectations), the leader reassumes control and moves backward toward S3, S2, or Sl. The framework, which assumes self- determination by the subordinate, maintains control in the position of the manager.

The functions of management are identified as planning, organizing, motivating, and controlling (p. 3). Controlling involves feedback of results and follow- up to compare accomplishments with plans and to make appropriate adjustments where outcomes have deviated from expectations (p. 4). In implementing plans, managers schedule, coordinate, control, and discipline (p. 8). An applied behavioral scientist is someone who can understand, predict, direct, change, and control behavior (p. 10). Hersey- Blanchard write:

> Control and manipulation have gained negative connotations, particularly in the minds of young people today. Our response is that if in the home you are concerned about your children and the kinds of values they develop and whether they do certain things and not do other things, you are concerned about controlling behavior. In your job as manager, you are concerned about the people for whom you are responsible - their cohesiveness, commitment, and the kind of rapport they have with you. If you are concerned about their engaging in certain activities and not engaging in other activities, then you are concerned about controlling behavior.... It really is not important what you call it; perhaps you can think of a better word - call it facilitating, training, having an impact, whatever. But remember, if you accept the role of *manager or leader*, you accept with it the responsibility of having an impact on the behavior of other people. (p. 10)

Hersey- Blanchard illustrate the concept of control in several places. Force or compliance eases changes in knowledge, attitudes, and individual and group behavior (p. 2). Directing contributes to the function of motivating (p. 4). The leader is advised to gradually let people think for themselves and solve their own problems (p. 227). Managers are advised to get their shots in early with their people because loosening up is easier than tightening up and attempts to recover control are tough, time consuming, and may be too late to do much good (p. 247). Staff realize that they can keep their boss "off their backs" by performing in mature responsible ways (p. 258).

Delegation. Delegation is the leadership mode for Q4. Here the subordinate is willing and able to accomplish the task with little or no direction or support from the manager.

When in the delegating style, the appropriate power is information power. People look to the leader for information to maintain or improve performance... clarify or explain issues or provide access to pertinent data, reports and correspondence when needed. A leader may gain respect from and influence a person who has competence by possessing expertise, skill, and knowledge that this follower recognizes as important (p. 183-184).

A manager increases the task level maturity of subordinates by being willing to delegate some responsibility to them. Managers must keep the degree of risk reasonable. "It's not a question of whether to take a risk or not; it's a matter of taking a calculated risk" (p. 201).

The leader prepares his follower for delegation by "positively reinforcing successive approximations" or doing "performance management." The steps are: (a) tell and show follower what to do, (b) delegate some responsibility (not too much or failure might result), (c) reward as soon as possible any behavior in the right direction. This process should continue as the individual's behavior comes closer and closer to the leader's expectations of good performance (p. 202). As people become high on task relevant maturity... the leader can demonstrate confidence and trust in the followers by leaving them more and more on their own (p. 206).

Hersey- Blanchard quote Greiner's Five Stages of Organizational Growth and suggest that growth through delegation produces a crisis of control. "The crisis begins to evolve as top managers sense that they are losing control over a highly diversified field operation.... Freedom breeds a parochial attitude." Hersey- Blanchard suggest that their sequence moving toward delegation is more consistent with reality than Greiner's (p. 289).

Trust. The word trust does not appear in the index. However trust and associated words occur here and there through the text. Most often trust is used in interpreting works of other authors. Argyris speaks of trusting, authentic relationships that increase organizational effectiveness (p. 53). Likert's System 4 is based on teamwork, mutual trust, and confidence (p. 64, 66, 298). Berne's "Not OK" styles reflect lack of trust of other people and confidence in self (p. 72). Tannenbaum and Schmidt's forces that influence leadership style include confidence in subordinates and the leader's feelings of uncertainty in an uncertain situation (trust of self in group, trust of self) (p. 128). The goals of organization development aim toward open, trusting type of organization (p. 291).

Hersey- Blanchard use the trust concept in interpreting two of the styles of Situational Leadership. In effective Style 3, leaders are seen by others as having implicit trust in people (p. 99). In Style 4, leaders prove their confidence and trust in highly mature people by leaving them more and more on their own (p. 156). When a manager (S4) reduces the amount of socioemotional support and structure, this indicates there is more mutual trust and confidence between the leader and follower (p. 205). Here supportive behavior is seen as dysfunctional and can be interpreted by mature people as lack of confidence and trust on the part of the leader (p. 206).

In other narrative, the extent to which managers develop rapport, confidence, and trust between themselves and their superiors will determine how willing those above will be to delegate power. The personal power of a manager depends on the confidence and trust the manager generates from the people the manager is attempting to influence (p. 186). High performance by a subordinate will reinforce a superior's high trust. It is easy to trust and respect people who meet expectations (p. 194). Prolonged task oriented leader behavior does not leave much room for a trusting relationship with employees (p. 195). Treating staff members with respect will lead to a relationship in which they feel free to share and talk (p. 241). In collaborative organizations, individuals trust each other and are frank and open in sharing information and ideas (p. 287).

These references to trust must be interpreted in the context of the high reliance by the manager on power and control, the extensive use of reinforcement, and the prescribed use of coercion or force to bring about change. The primary meaning of trust in this framework is the manager's confidence that a subordinate is willing and able to complete the task.

Team. Words that associate with team process occur throughout the text: teamwork, mutual trust and confidence (p. 64); cohesive, productive team (p. 62); working team (p. 63); cohesive work group (p. 46, 50); cooperative group action (p. 92); team management (p. 92, 128); cooperation and teamwork (p. 137); team building (p. 142, 258); team development (p. 156); a relatively effective combat team (p. 283); collaborative intergroup relations (p. 285); management action through teams (p. 290); open, trusting type of organization... collaborative or interpersonal strategies for change (p. 291); teamwork, mutual trust, and confidence (p. 298). In many of these instances the terms are from material authored by other scholars, suggesting that Hersey- Blanchard have reviewed and by- passed synergistic concepts of team process for their own framework.

Hersey- Blanchard suggest that the manager build his team in the process of selecting key subordinates, a process common in competitive sports like football. Subordinates must share perceptions of each others roles and have common goals and objectives. It is better to recruit subordinates who can compensate for areas of the manager's shortcomings than to seek persons with similar styles. People who are hired should complement rather than replicate the manager's style (p. 142-143, 258).

Teambuilding is related to power. "We can increase the probability of success of a particular manager if... we know what power bases and corresponding leadership styles are needed to influence the people involved in the new situation effectively. That's the whole concept of teambuilding" (p. 190).

At points, team seems generic. The goal of Situational Leadership is to "help everyone...

make changes in their behavior... so they could become a more effective working team" (p. 3ll).

At points, team seems suspect. In dealing with Greiner's stages of organizational growth, Hersey- Blanchard comment on Stage 5- Growth Through Collaboration, "The next revolution will... center around the 'psychological saturation' of employees who grow emotionally and physically exhausted by the intensity of teamwork and the heavy pressure for innovative solutions" (p. 290).

The basic component of an organization is the individual, and this individual is the fundamental unit of study for Situational Leadership (p. xviii). In Situational Leadership, a group is comprised of multiples of one individual. "Individual or group," the unit to which the manager relates, is used throughout the text as a generic term. Qualitative distinctions are not made between one and multiples of one. A recent article (Carew, Parsi-Carew, & Blanchard, 1986) continues to conceive the group as multiples of one. Ironically, while the framework addresses the individual (1 - 1), all 12 situations of the LEAD- Self are referenced to the work group.

Work groups are suspect. "Management is often suspicious of strong informal work groups because of their potential power to control the behavior of their members and, as a result, the level of productivity.... The influence group processes can have in achieving conformity in the perceptions and behaviors of people is well documented.... Strong informal work groups do not have to be a detriment to the organization" (p. 51-52).

The index contains no listing for "group," "group process," or "process." The index listing for "group dynamics studies" quotes Cartwright and Zander; the text is less than one page. Blake and Mouton are mentioned in this context (p. 87-93).

One section of the text deals with patterns of communication in relation to change. The two communication patterns identified and compared, star and circle, represent leader centered or leaderless synergies. The text does not conceive each member of a team relating to each other member of a team or a pattern of synergy in which the team leader would facilitate communication among all members of the team (p. 276-280).

The framework contains no concept of task interdependence based in interpersonal interdependence. The goal within both the framework and the model is individual task maturity that produces autonomy or independence (p. 156-157). One point in the text seems to suggest the importance of an integrated work group, but shows no recognition of the participatory and synergistic nature of team process. This group remains leader centered.

> Integrating is the process by which individual strategies are merged into a group strategy; individual risks become group risks; individual goals are harmonized into group goals;ultimately, individual entrepreneurship emerges as group entrepreneurship.

> (Hersey and Blanchard quote Adizes),"When a group can operate on its own with a clear direction in mind and can choose its own direction over time without depending on any one individual for a successful operation, then we know that the integrating role has been performed adequately. It requires *an individual* who is sensitive to people's needs. *Such an individual* unifies the whole organization behind goals and strategies."
>
> Integrating emphasizes the human / social system.... If any one of the four roles can be truly indispensable for any *executive*, it is integration.... If this people- part of the managerial role is not fulfilled, the entrepreneur will become a crisis maker, the administrator a bureaucrat, and the producer a loner." (p. 8-9)

While the text uses team language, the concept of team is more that of a collection of task mature individuals than that of synergistic group process. At no point does the text operationally define team or claim team process as a primary product.

Validity of the LEAD- Self Instrument

A quote from Management of Organizational Behavior (Hersey- Blanchard, 1982b, p. 105; and Greene, 1980) gives the only standardization information identified for the LEAD-Self instrument. The material appears in the Appendix of this monograph. Nor is a technical manual or other guidance for research available.

Applications

The authors suggest that Situational Leadership has application in every setting in which people are trying to influence the behavior of other people, i.e., business and industry, education, government, military, political parties, hospitals, prisons, churches, and the family (p. 3, 94, 162). They include sections dealing with parent- child relationships, management of research and development personnel, educational settings (teacher- student relationships, administrator- governing board relationships, and administrator- faculty relationships) (p. 162-167). A considerable portion of the research has utilized populations from education. Situational Parenting, an application for parent education, advocates the same concepts and strategies for the family that are recommended for the business world and for the military (Hersey- Blanchard, 1978). Applications of the framework have been made to education (Gates, Blanchard, Hersey, 1976), to communication skills (Hersey and Keilty, 1980), to performance planning (Hersey and Goldsmith, 1980), to burnout (Niehouse, 1984), and to group development (Kormanski, 1985).

Recent Writings

Hersey and Blanchard are now publishing separately. Each creates an interpretation of Situational Leadership bearing a different emphasis.

Paul Hersey, the primary author, has published The Situational Leader...The Other 59 Minutes (1984). Hersey, who works through University Associates, focuses the issue of power as central to the management process (p. 79-83). The manager must establish himself as being "in charge." Power bases "drive" the leadership styles. The manager must develop and count on both position and personal power. The manager must utilize rewards and sanctions; he must use his power or lose it (p. 80-83). Relationship behavior is to be used as reward.

> Rewards and reinforcement are important tools for developing people. The use of supportive behavior is one of the few reward systems still available to managers.... Managers should provide rewards only when getting the desired performance (p. 100).

This manager begins and ends being in charge of what is to be accomplished (p. 120).

Kenneth Blanchard in 1982 initiated the "One Minute" series. To date these books have been published :

The One Minute Manager, with Spencer Johnson (1982).
Putting the One Minute Manager to Work, with Robert Lordeer (1984).
The One Minute Salesperson, with Larry Wilson (1985).
Leadership and the One Minute Manager, with Pat and Drea Zigarmi (1985).
The Power of Ethical Management, with Norman Vincent Peale (1988).

In a letter to this researcher (October 30, 1985), Blanchard indicated that he no longer uses LEAD- Self but is now working with "Leader Behavior Analysis II" (Blanchard, Hambleton, Zigarmi, & Forsyth, 1985). This instrument is built on 20 situations and is designed for research use. Differences from the LEAD- Self are not immediately apparent. Blanchard's recent work has a positive focus: win- win strategies, golden rules for managing people, developmental task analysis, group development, skill building, and health and fitness. Blanchard offers a situational approach to managing teams through Blanchard Training and Development.

Research and Results

Minimal research published by the authors was found. Most published research is at dissertation level, and most treats the framework and instrument(s) uncritically.

Journal Articles. Evidence for the validity of the Situational Leadership framework is reported in journal articles. Hambleton and Gumpert (1982) used the Leader Behavior Analysis instrument to study managers, subordinates, and supervisors in a company. Statistics were chi square and *t* tests. Leader Behavior Analysis is a 20 item enlarged research version of the LEAD- Self. They obtained results that supported the validity of the theory. They suggest that when it was applied correctly, the gain in subordinate job performance was both practically and statistically significant. No causal relationships were established because of the constraints in the research design. Data was based on self-report, and managers used in the sample were not representative. Hypotheses approaching statistical significance included: (3) High performing managers will be rated higher by their subordinates and supervisors in leadership effectiveness, as measured by the LBA- Other; (4) Managers applying the theory correctly will, on the average, rate their subordinates' job performance higher, than when they are not applying it correctly.

Walter, Caldwell, and Marsh (1980) compared principal's responses on the LEAD with teachers responses on the LBDQ-XII, and concluded that the LEAD may have some validity for assessing leadership style. The article did not report statistics used. High task-low relationship behavior (Sl) by leaders was viewed by teachers as considerate. When principals combine high task with high relationship behaviors (S2), teachers perceive them as being able to reconcile conflicting demands. Principals who said they used mostly high relationship- low task behavior (S3) were viewed as not assuming their proper role, unable to reconcile conflicting demands, tolerate uncertainty, or predict outcomes accurately. Delegation seemed to have positive consequences. Teachers perceived principals who used low task- low relationship behavior (S4) as emphasizing production. Findings were interpreted to support the idea that flexible and balanced use of task and relationship behaviors is beneficial for both organizational productivity and personal satisfaction.

Hersey, Angelini, and Carakushansky (1982) studied the teacher's role in training 60 highly motivated, successful executives. Statistics reported were means, standard deviations, mean differences, and *t* tests. Teacher roles and arrangements of classroom furniture were modified according to the Situational Leadership framework. The experimental groups demonstrated significantly higher levels of learning than did control groups. Experimental groups had a higher level of enthusiasm, gave closer cooperation, and had better attendance. Authors believe evidence suggests benefits from applying Situational Leadership to teacher- trainer's behavior in a teaching- training context.

Dissertations and dissertation abstracts. This researcher, working from dissertations and dissertation abstracts between 1980 and 1985, analyzed sixty- nine studies that utilized the

Situational Leadership framework. Several confirmed the validity of the theory. Thomas (1983) found that a proper match of maturity level and leadership style enhances the satisfaction of followers. Goldenberg (1980) showed results consistent with the Situational Leadership framework but inconsistent with constraint theory and suggested a causal relationship between follower maturity and leader behavior.

Goldenberg (1980), found the reliability to be adequate. Goldenberg reported for LEAD- Self and LEAD- Other a test- retest reliability of .76 and .79, and .72 and .77.

Other studies did not confirm the theory. Several questioned the validity of maturity level as used in Situational Leadership. Jacobsen (1984) did not confirm maturity level as the most important situational variable. Nightingale (1983) found that schools could attain effectiveness without matched leadership style and motivation level. Roach (1982) found that principals whose leadership style matched job related maturity of teachers did not receive significantly higher ratings than principals whose leadership style did not match job related maturity of teachers. Gwagulwong (1981) found that principals leadership behavior did not contribute to or was not influenced by maturity levels of school teachers. Neither the skills, motivation, and experience of the teachers, nor the behavioral characteristics of the principals seemed to have an impact on the teachers job satisfaction. Clark (1981) concluded that either the Maturity Scale did not discriminate levels of maturity, or the vast majority of followers were at M4, the highest level of maturity. Clark suggested that the concept of degree of difficulty should be integrated into the task relevant component of the follower maturity level of the theory.

Some authors reported mixed results. Fish (1981) concluded that application of the theory yielded mixed results. Diehn (1982) said that solid and conclusive validation for the model was not possible. Gwagulwong (1981) interpreted results to indicate a general lack of support for the basic hypotheses and the Situational Leadership framework. Boucher (1980) suggested partial validation, but said that when each quadrant is examined independently the relationships are not strong enough to indicate statistical significance. Boucher also noted that the null hypothesis regarding high task and high relationship (S2) was rejected supporting the validity of that quadrant and style.

The social desirability factor skews results toward high task and high relationship (S2). These results may be made consonant with reality by using LEAD- Self with LEAD- Other. Haley (1983) called into question the use of self- measures of leadership, particularly when self- report is not validated against other perceptions. Several studies reported higher self- report scores than subordinate- report scores: Holton (1984), Finnick (1984), Devine (1983), Chapman (1983), Edman (1982). Superiors and subordinates view leader effectiveness differently (Clark, 1981).

Two attempted to remedy research deficiencies of the LEAD- Self. Boone (1981) noted that ipsative scores are not useful for research involving comparison of scores and developed a normative scaling system using summative rather than forced choice measures. He concluded that a method for determining the relative ipsativity of the original scales should be developed. Jacobson (1981) noted that "no validity- reliability data are known to exist for the Hersey- Blanchard LEAD." She developed a valid and reliable measure of leadership effectiveness; her work produced a 20 item Leadership Effectiveness Measure.

Authors report findings about the quadrants and styles. Low task and low relationship (S4) is generally considered to be the least effective style. Clark (1981) considered S4 to be the least effective style, even when matched with high maturity level followers (M4). Winkler (1983) found that S4 correlated negatively with satisfaction. Fish (1981) found S4 to be the basic leadership style for 5 of 8 directors. Clark (1981) found that superiors rated leaders most effective if they used the low relationship styles (S1) and (S4).

High task and low relationship (Sl) correlated negatively with satisfaction for Winkler (1983). Sims (1981) reported that all teachers perceived male and female principals as S2 or S1 and away from S4.

The high relationship styles (S2) and (S3) are most often reported to be the dominant styles and the preferred styles. The high relationship styles are most often reported to correlate with effectiveness and satisfaction. High task and high relationship (S2) was reported to be dominant by Goodstein (1984), Finnick (1984), Winkler (1983), Saucier (1984), Romero (1983), Devine (1983), Chapman (1983), Bryant (1983), Adamitis (1981), and Boucher (1980). High relationship and low task (S3) was reported to be dominant by Holton (1984), Dhanasobhon (1982), East (1981), and Goldenberg (1980). Several authors reported dominance of S2 and / or S3 without indicating precedence for one or the other: East (1981), Styles (1981), Poling (1982), Clark (1981), and Gamon (1984).

Gray (1982) indicated S2 to be chosen most frequently by both team leaders and team members to describe team leader's style. Diehn (1982) found a high tendency for high relationship leadership styles to be perceived by subordinates as more effective regardless of the task relevant ability level. Donovan (1982) found the environment of Bible colleges to be suitable for presidents whose dominant style was S2. Monie (1980) indicated that seventh grade teachers who frequently selected S2 were more effective than those who infrequently selected it. Responses of S2 and S3 were associated with high administrator effectiveness at the 9th grade level. Fish (1981) found that teacher participant satisfaction with the program significantly correlated with a higher incidence of S2. Sentz (1981) indicated that supervising teachers and student teachers generally rated performance higher for those who worked with supervising teachers who combined task and relationship oriented teacher behaviors. University supervisors rated student teachers significantly higher who worked with supervising teachers having high relationship leadership styles. Finnick (1984) found both high relationship styles to be more effective. Nightingale (1983) found a negative relationship between S2 and medium to low motivation.

Other authors generated other insights about relationship dimensions. Borman (1984) compared the theory and practice of leadership for educational administrators and military administrators. The LEAD- Self instrument failed to distinguish differences in leadership behaviors between 130 secondary school principals and 100 United States Army Captains who held Military Occupational Specialties in administration.

Lewis (1983) studied cognitive gains by 478 third grade low income pupils in relation to leadership style of their 29 principals as perceived by their teachers using the LEAD- Other instrument. The results indicated that low- income pupils' cognitive gains were significantly related to the following elements of principals' leadership: (a) total leadership effectiveness, (b) frequency of high relationship behavior, and (c) effectiveness of high task behavior. Principals influenced student achievement by effecting teacher behavior.

Clark (1981) found that high relationship behavior from leaders appears to be needed by followers, independent of their maturity level. Clark suggests that Situational Leadership be adapted to the apparent need of followers for high relationship behaviors.

Goldenberg (1980) found that nursing education administrators perceived their leadership role as primarily supportive. The leadership role was supportive especially in relation to faculty despite educational, experiential, or situational differences.

Two studies dealt with communication in relation to leadership style. Kohut (1983) studied communicative correlates of sex role identity and leadership style of women in management. The study found that a flexible leadership style tends to be related to higher levels of leadership effectiveness, which aids in the development of managerial self-concept. The study suggests testing for the validity of the LEAD instrument and validating a communication style construct to elucidate the relationships between communication and effective management. M.A. Smith (1981) studied leadership and learning styles of cooperating teachers and student teachers as related to communication during student teaching. Smith found no significant differences among any of the groups in communication for either leadership style adaptability or learning style / conceptual level.

Dietl (1981) studied top managers of Northwestern Bell in Omaha, NE using Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and Situational Leadership. Situational effectiveness was not influenced by a definite personality type. Edman (1982) found only a modest .34 Pearson correlation between LEAD and LBDQ scores.

Situational Leadership was used to study teams. Devine (1983) studied collaborative leader behavior among Teacher Corps team leaders and interns. Team leader and intern data both indicated a predominant primary leadership style high in relationship. A primary leadership style high in both task and relationship behavior was associated with project identity .

Gray (1982) examined leadership style and adaptability in nursing team leaders. The high task and high relationship style was chosen most frequently by both team leaders and team members (regardless of level of analysis) to describe the team leader's style. The study suggests that a third dimension, the level of sophistication of tasks being performed in a situation, needs to be considered if Situational Leadership is to be useful in nursing.

Floyd (1981) developed an instrument "The Management Team Matrix" to measure the effectiveness of an administrative team viewed from the perspective of the Situational Leadership framework. Managerial functions of planning, organizing, influencing, and controlling were matched with linking processes of communication and decision making. Statements were sorted into four categories: objective of function, degree of participation, responsibility of individual, and responsibility of team. Implications included: (a) The effectiveness of the administrative team requires appropriate leadership style flexibility and a high degree of maturity on the part of team members; (b) The effective team is motivated by a leadership style that allows for shared decision- making and open communications; (c) The effectiveness of the administrative team will have a positive relationship with organizational effectiveness and organizational outputs.

Hafen (1981) studied the relationship of leadership style to cognitive style and organizational climate. The study utilized the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (a precursor of Situational Leadership) and the Organizational Climate portion of the Survey of Organizations. There was a moderate to high correlation between the consideration dimension of leadership management style and all six indices of organizational climate. Correlations between the structure dimension of leadership management style and indices of organizational climate indicated low positive correlation with four of the six indices. (A positive climate is often used as an indicator of effective team process.)

Several authors identified sex differences related to Situational Leadership. Edman (1982) found that female principals received significantly higher LEAD effectiveness scores from male teachers than from female teachers. Monie (1980) found female teachers preferred S2 more than male teachers. Williams (1982) found that more male coaches viewed themselves as S2, and more female coaches viewed themselves as S3.

A number of authors correlated demographic factors with leadership styles. In no case was a correlation significant: Chapman (1983), Bryant (1983), Dhanasobhon (1982), Poling (1982), Boone (1981), Goldenberg (1980), and Gamon (1984).

No research was found relating to construct validity of the Relationship construct of Situational Leadership.

Critique of Situational Leadership in the Literature

Harlan G. Copeland. In reviewing the second edition of Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, Copeland (1973) notes that the underlying philosophy seems mechanistic and manipulative rather than humanistic in nature. He suggests that leadership behavior, as used in the book, is more consistent with a style of management than with definitions of leadership found in literature. He questions the underlying assumption that the person must always adapt to the organization.

Claude L. Graeff. Graeff writes of problems with the normative model and of problems with the LEAD instrument. He finds no theoretical justification for the curvilinear relationship between initiating structure and relationship and the maturity variable. Graeff notes the double bind in Q1. A person of poor self- esteem will perform poorly, forcing the manager to use coercion as a power base. This is the opposite of what is appropriate for the shy or insecure employee. He identifies problems with the LEAD Instrument:

> 1. Low task- low relationship (Q4) is... inadequately described, in solutions offered to several situations....these actions seem to reflect... abdication of a leadership role, or no leadership at all, instead of an adequate description of low task- low relationship behaviors.... [this] contributes to an implicit bias away from selecting Q4... and therefore reduces the diagnostic utility of the instrument.
>
> 2. Situations 4 and 7 are extremely similar if not identical. Yet each is associated with a different leader behavior combination as the preferred alternative.
>
> 3. Situation 12 reveals that problems with interpersonal relations are affecting group performance.... The best alternative is to allow group members to work it out themselves.... The logic is not obvious why this is preferred. (p. 285-289)

In summary, Graeff says that Hersey- Blanchard fail to recognize the multiplicative fashion in which the two primary determinants of performance usually combine. There are problems with the conceptual definition of relationship behavior. Their arguments about the appropriateness of participative decision making are inconsistent (1983, p. 285-289).

Critique of Situational Leadership

Task. The Situational Leadership framework is one model for task accomplishment. The framework may have its greatest relevance: (a) in agencies where the primary dimension of mission is task accomplishment (such as the production of "widgets"), (b) with populations of subordinates whose task relevant maturity is low, (c) where relationship with the subordinate is not desired or where turnover is predictably high, and / or (d) with disturbed persons who must develop internal capacity to control their own behavior. The usefulness of the framework in developing an effective work group might be enhanced by involving each member of the work group in accomplishing a super- ordinate goal. The framework has received wide acceptance in industrial and corporate settings.

Relationship. The model is built on a truncated concept of relationship. The function of the relationship dimension of the model is to enhance task accomplishment. The boss enters the relationship for the sake of accomplishing the task through the subordinate. Reinforcement, which must be earned, is the only operationally defined expression of this relationship. Relationship is the means (tool) by which the boss gets production from the subordinate in the work setting.

This relationship is not the interpersonal relationship of humanistic psychology. Situational relationship does not exist for its own sake or for the sake of the other. It is not an expression of bonding between persons nor does it indicate human connectedness. It does not deal with esteem (self- esteem, unconditional positive regard, or personal validation) or interpersonal status (personal equality, human mutuality, or reciprocity). It would seem useful to separate the basic affirmation of personhood from the recognition of accomplishment.

Human needs for basic personal acceptance and / or interpersonal relationship are interpreted to indicate immaturity (p. 155-156, 205) and are inappropriate to the work setting. This researcher wonders whether the absence of personal acceptance creates the appetite that is met with strokes or reinforcement. Does the framework generate a dependency hunger rooted in unsatisfied need for personal acceptance?

The absence of reciprocity produces a model built on implicit systemic injustice. Personal equality cannot be granted within these power dynamics. The absence of reciprocity is regrettable. The same mindset produces numerous statements that could be interpreted as insensitive, sexist, or militaristic (p. 29, 95, 138, 213-214, 241, 242, 245, 246-247, 283-284, 292-293).

The framework lacks concepts of either mutuality or cooperation. The power relationship is given and unequal. Leadership has to do with the way the boss operationally defines power; position power is more effective than personal power. The "boss-subordinate" pattern must repeat itself over and over again across the levels of the heirarchy. To the boss's boss, the boss is a subordinate. The subordinate may be a boss to his / her subordinate. Never can employees function as equals in addressing the common tasks. The "positional authority" of the Situational leader is firmly in place.

Healthy wholistic interpersonal relationships are not the goal of this framework. Neither the beginning nor the end of the sequence is high relationship (Ql or Q4). High relationship is used in Q2 (paternalistic, authoritarian) and in Q3 (questionably collaborative) to achieve the goals of the organization. The framework begs (ignores) the questions of (a) whether healthy interpersonal relationships enable learning, cognitive development, and competence (mastery), and (b) the effect of level of self- esteem on level of productivity. Interpretations of material from Maslow (p. 26-28, 31-36) make it questionable whether the traditional understanding of self- esteem is even present.

The word trust is absent from the index and mentioned randomly in the text. The primary meaning given to trust is "confidence on the part of the boss that the subordinate will do the job" (p. 156, 205-6). This is not interpersonal trust, the foundation of interpersonal relationship and / or interdependence.

Communication is called "the key concept in all behavioral sciences" (p. 162). In the framework communication refers primarily to the transmission of messages (verbal content). Affective (relational content) is ignored or to be avoided (p. 217-219, 241, 263). One way communication is prescribed for task behaviors; two way communication may be used in relationship behaviors. Active listening is "listening to people's opinions and concerns." Feedback relates only to the quality of the performance. Reflective listening (communication as interactive and enabling dialogue) is not a part of this text.

Research results (see p. 115-120 of this chapter) point to the importance of high relationship. Dominant and preferred styles were most often reported to be S2 and S3. High relationship and high task (S2) was most often used to describe a team leader's style. The style perceived as most effective tended to be S2. Hambleton and Gumpert found that 90% of the time, high performing managers were Q2 or Q3 (1982b, p. 236). Low relationship behaviors tend not to be desired by followers at any maturity level.

Hersey- Blanchard acknowledge that the high relationship styles tend to be more effective (p. 140). "Selling" (S2) and "Participating" (S3) are considered safe styles (p. 251). Managers of managers should use S2 as the basic style with S3 and S1 as supporting styles (p. 256-257).

The strength of the relational portion of the framework lies in the emphasis on behavior.

Behaviors that can be identified and counted may be more available for modification than attitudes, values, and emotions.

The weakness of the relational portion of the framework is that primary aspects of human consciousness and connectedness are absent. The lack of these deprives the practitioner of the full power of authentic human relationship and interaction and may create power dynamics that undermine the accomplishment of the task. This treatment of relationship does not approach the quality of leader- follower empathy suggested by Burns' transformational leadership.

It is questionable whether reinforcement is an adequate expression of relationship, or whether reinforcement expresses relationship at all. With reinforcement one person does something to another person. Interpersonal relationship occurs between persons.

In the Situational Leadership framework, "human skills" are crucial to the success of the Situational Leader (p. 5, 6, 257, 311). If "human skills" are to be grounded in effective interpersonal relationships, much more theoretical development must occur before the framework is effective and mature.

Quadrants and styles. The most successful and desirable quadrants are acknowledged to be the high relationship styles (Q2) and (Q3). The low relationship styles are most likely to be problematic (Hersey- Blanchard, 1982b, pp. 236-237).

Ql fails to provide the manager with adequate relational support for the new employee, and leaves the manager dealing with a new person at a highly formative period in a high task (coercive) mode. Q1 is built on a genuine double bind. The manager may only grant relationship (reinforcement) for performance of task (p. 223). If the manager does not relate to the subordinate, the subordinate may never become "connected." If, prior to task accomplishment, the subordinate seeks and the manager grants reinforcement, the manager rewards and produces more unwanted behavior. If the person's self- esteem is low or underdeveloped, the manager may never establish interpersonal relationship with the subordinate, and the subordinate may never move beyond the first quadrant.

The framework states that each new employee starts "unwilling." This assumption may be unfair and may distort the setting for initial learning. Q1 is especially problematic when the new employee arrives "willing" and eager to become a productive staff person. It is possible that in Q1 the manager creates the dependency that the rest of the leadership sequence is designed to solve. True independence and interdependence are rooted in personal strength (self- esteem) and are evidenced in qualities of interpersonal relationship. A different set of assumptions would allow the cultivation of personal strength from the beginning. The assumed "unwillingness" in Q1 may function as a self-fulfilling prophecy.

In Q2 the behavior of the follower is not yet acceptable to the leader (p. 225). Q2 represents a low to moderate level of maturity and a high level of control. This high task - high relationship style is clearly not the '9,9' envisioned by Blake- Mouton, nor should it be expected to produce team process. Blake- Mouton are correct in stating that Situational Leadership does not offer the '9,9' option to a leader.

In Q2 the subordinate is understood to be "willing," but as ability increases and the subordinate matures enough to advance to Q3, the subordinate becomes "unwilling." Hersey- Blanchard say, "Their 'unwillingness' is often a function of their lack of confidence or insecurity" (p. 153). Why does the confidence in Q2 become lack of confidence and security in Q3? Is this negative development logical, useful to the framework, or adequately explained?

Q4 is the quadrant that seems most problematic and least desired. The manager in Q4 is advised to use low relationship, as the now mature employee is autonomous (self reinforcing) and has no need of reinforcement or socio- emotional support. Leaving the subordinate on his / her own is positive reinforcement (p. 308). "Delegating" (Q4) provides little direction or support to the subordinate (p. 154). While responsibility for task accomplishment can be delegated, it is questionable whether interpersonal relationship can be delegated. Interpersonal relationship occurs between two persons, or it does not occur.

This strategy ignores the fact that behaviors that are not reinforced have a tendency to extinguish themselves. Hersey and Goldsmith state that "staff members have a tendency to pursue tasks that are rewarded and to avoid tasks which [sic] are not" (1980, p. 42). It also sets up dynamics in which a subordinate might get the managers attention primarily through inadequate performance. If a new person joins the staff having task relevant maturity, the manager is advised to begin with this person in Q4 (p. 199). While this "mature" person may be able to reinforce self and perform the job with Q4 leadership, these dynamics are likely to leave the person "side- streamed" from the human network of the agency.

No rationale is given for the curvilinear relationship among quadrants. However Hersey-Blanchard acknowledge Korman as the original author of the concept (p.150). This author has not seen guidelines for research on a framework built on the curvilinear relationship.

Maturity and motivation. Personality is understood to be the sum of habit patterns (p. 28). A person becomes what the person does. By shaping the behavior of a subordinate, the boss shapes the person. Shaping is always done by the person in power. The ability of the subordinate to shape the person of the boss is ignored. The power of the subordinate in this framework becomes the ability to withhold from the boss, rapport, loyalty, performance, commitment, etc.

The focus of Situational Leadership is on productivity through governance. "Maturity is a task-specific concept and depends on what the leader is attempting to accomplish" (p. 181). "Maturity is not a global concept... people are not mature or immature in any total sense" (p. 198). Maturity processes can be both progressive and regressive. If a subordinate regresses in performance, the manager must revert to an earlier style. The manager never deals with the personal or interpersonal causes of "regression," only with the fact that the task is not being accomplished (p. 213-214).

Maturity as full human development is not conceived in the framework. There is no concept of the whole person (cognitive, affective, psychomotor, life- span developmental) on which full human maturity could be based. The lack of awareness of full human development leads to half true or dangerous applications of the framework to parenting and family life (p. 32-3, 101, 162-164, 202, 206, 216, 218, 226, 246, 311).

The framework, which seems to delete affect, leaves the boss ill equipped to deal with the whole person. The manager is warned of the hazards of emotion (p. 217-219, 241, 263, 311). The manager and subordinate never develop attachment or bonding. By contrast, humanistic psychologists understand attachment with affect to be the foundation and primary source of human behavior. It is questionable whether human behavior can be understood apart from its affective components.

The framework fails to conceptualize human freedom. Behavior is caused by motives and needs and is controlled by its immediate consequences, i.e. reinforcements outside the self (p. 207). The manager must know what motives or needs evoke a given behavior (p. 15). Behavior at a particular moment is determined by the strongest need (p. 26). People are social animals (p. 33). A manager may use Theory X assumptions in order to help people "grow up" (p. 49). Group pressures help to achieve conformity (p. 52). The Situational leader chooses a power base in order to induce compliance or influence behavior (p. 182-184)). Managers are responsible for the performance of their people and for making them winners (p. 197-198). What a manager expects of his subordinates and the way he treats them largely determine their performance and career progress (p. 195). Decreases in maturity are caused by "high strength competing responses" (not by choice) (p. 213). Change occurs through a process of unfreezing, changing, and refreezing (not through personal development or growth) (p. 280-281). The manager uses power to control the subordinate for task performance. The text does not deal with behavior as chosen nor is behavior understood to embody personal decision.

Participation in the process is available to the subordinate at the boss's discretion. The subordinate is initially to respond and later may be allowed to act. With permission, the subordinate may make task related decisions, but only if the task performance continues to please the boss. The subordinate is an actor, but never really becomes proactive. By bending human will to the needs of the agency, the framework sets up a tension between the agency, which must count on the subordinate to accomplish the task, and the subordinate who is essentially an active and decisional being.

The authors reinterpret Maslow's framework for their own purposes. 'Self-actualization' is foundational to the text. In Situational Leadership, the self is actualized through achievement (task accomplishment). The role of the manager is to produce self-actualization in the subordinate. The role of the self in the self- actualization process is never acknowledged. Esteem, on which self- actualization is built, is reinterpreted in terms of two motives - prestige and power (p. 35-37). The authors fail to recognize the original meaning of self- esteem or its importance to personal development, interpersonal relationship, or productivity. Nor does the text conceive the importance of interpersonal support provided by a social network.

Values are peripheral to the framework. The values of the manager set the context in which leadership style is exercised (p. 128). The values of the subordinate are considered only if they block the plans of the manager. The framework does not deal with the relation of values to human behavior.

Motivation centers in meeting needs generating from habit patterns. Intrinsic motivation is never tapped. This need- based view of human nature fails to recognize the deepest human needs for status and acceptance or to acknowledge that needs met may become strengths that enable genuine independence and interdependence. Capacity for self-direction is developed by the boss (extrinsic) rather than being seen as an inherent capacity of the self that is expressed through the act of decision making (intrinsic). This monolithic view of personality deprives the Situational leader of reciprocal interaction with followers. Personality is generic. There is little room for individualization. The recipe is the same for all.

Situational. The Situational Leadership framework is a popular statement of the contingency approach to leadership. However, the only situational variable with which the framework deals is the task- relevant maturity of the follower. The key to all situational variables is seen to be the relationship between the leader and the follower. If the follower does not follow, the rest of it does not matter (p.146, 150). A number of other variables also effect the context in which leadership occurs. Certainly mission, structure, power, and resources set major parameters (Terry, 1986). The mission of the agency is at least as formative as the task relevant maturity of the subordinate. The framework will be stronger if and when it equips the manager to deal with additional situational constraints.

Leadership or management? Is "leadership" in this framework "leadership," or is it "management," or simply "1-1 supervision for task accomplishment"? The primary concern is with productivity and the governance necessary to accomplish the task. Management is defined as the achievement through others of organizational goals (p. 3, 106). Patterns of interpersonal synergy between the leader and the follower are never considered. To the extent that the authority of the manager is built more on position power than on personal power, it lacks human authenticity and broad applicability.

The Situational Leadership framework does not deal with issues of ethics; this leader may accomplish a personal goal that undermines the organization and be a leader, but not a manager (p. 3, 107). Qualities often expected of leadership are absent from the text: vision, justice, wisdom, charisma, or the ability to call forth transformation in followers, the agency structure, or the larger social system.

Control and delegation. Control is designed to accomplish the task. The Situational Leader tends to be a "super- manager." Both the initiative and the final accountability rest with the manager. While the sequence of the model seems to move toward delegation, it is questionable whether the manager ever relinquishes control in any significant sense. The manager is always present "looking over the shoulder" or waiting to "get all over" the subordinate who does not perform. The subordinate is the building block for productivity (tool or pawn) that the manager uses to accomplish the task. The subordinate's ability to perform is circumscribed (limited) by the manager's ability to conceive, design, and direct.

While the stated goal of the framework is autonomy (p. 210), the level of control holds the subordinate in task dependence (p. 49, 50, 79). This manager will be over-programmed and over- responsible, exhausted from trying to solve all the subordinates' problems (p. 230) and always frustrated by the need to get followers to "stand on their own two feet and be effective" (p. 231). A careful delineation of the dynamics of accountability would help.

McConkey (1974) presents a contrasting view of delegation. "By delegation the manager maximizes the return on the people investment" (p. 22-23). The manager who regards his primary function as controlling the actions of subordinates emphasizes the wrong aspect of the management process. Over controlling limits the productivity of the manager and guarantees an excessive amount of personal effort (p. 30-31). The best delegation flows both ways between superior and subordinate, allowing subordinates to participate extensively in determining what is delegated to them (p. 87).

> Prime accountability rests with the person who must achieve results; final accountability rests with the manager who insures that action is taken (p. 135).... No delegation takes place if a subordinate is not granted authority to accomplish his accountability (p.137) .... There must be a transfer of power, specific authority, granted in advance, spelled out in writing, delegated to lowest possible level, publicized, and equal to the accountability. (p. 138)

McConkey (1974) draws a careful line between accomplishing the task and relating to the person. He says simply, "Interpersonal relationships cannot be delegated" (p. 89).

Situational Leadership cautiously suggests participative management for those who are inclined to give it a try (p. 119-121). The level of implicit control would render genuine participative management almost impossible to achieve.

There is a metaquestion, "What is the manager actually able to control?" Does the manager control (a) his / her own behavior, (b) the reinforcements provided to subordinates, (c) the job related behaviors of subordinates, (d) all behaviors of subordinates, (e) setting goals for subordinate, (f) achievement of goals by subordinate, (g) what the manager expects from the subordinate, or (h) the expectations of the subordinate about the job?

Exploring questions of control might enhance the relevance of Situational Leadership. What is a reasonable and legitimate span- of- control, i.e., how many '1-1' supervisory relationships can any person handle effectively? Is the framework equally relevant for all levels of management? Is the framework appropriate for upper management where the manager may be several layers removed from the subordinate who performs a specific task? What hazards might be expected from high control, i.e., rebellion (overt or covert), infantilization of followers, impossibility of genuine delegation, or preemption of person-to- person relationships? How will current generations of employees respond to high control? If they resent being treated as subordinates, will a framework built on that power dynamic be effective?

In Situational Leadership explicit control by the manager replaces the instinctive internalized guidance rooted in loyalty that is produced by authentic human relationship. The high level of managerial control is inevitable in a framework from which affect has been deleted. It is possible that the choice of behavior modification as the method of relationship (a method that assumes control on the part of the reinforcer) precludes the attainment of the stated goal of the framework (autonomous self- management).

The high level of control maintained by the Situational Leader may reflect the historical adversarial relationship between management and labor. Situational Leadership was developed for use in the private (for- profit) sector. Wording of the text suggests that managers may be the primary intended audience.

Conflict management. The framework deals only with conflict between groups (p. 285-288). The text does not deal with conflict between individuals. Is the level of control exercised by the manager expected to prevent the generation of interpersonal conflict, or are subordinates never expected to relate to each other, thereby preventing conflict ?

Autonomous task accomplishment, trust, and team process. Can Situational Leadership be expected to produce team process? Will relationship as reinforcement initiate the interpersonal dynamics that result in interpersonal and collaborative interdependence?

The desired output of the Situational Leadership framework (Q4) is autonomous task accomplishment rather than interdependent task accomplishment. The subordinate moves from dependence on the manager (assumed by the manager) toward independence from the manager (called forth by the manager). The concept of trust is basically the trust of the manager that the subordinate will perform the task. The concept of task interdependence, essential to team process, is absent. Except in the use of management by objectives, the manager is never vulnerable to (is not interdependent with) the subordinate. Subordinates are not understood to be interdependent with each other. The initial formative high task experience (Q1) remains with the person of the subordinate (Q4). Here high task is shifted from the manager to the subordinate, but with little support or reinforcement from either boss or co- workers. The fact that co- workers will relate to each other, with or without the boss's permission, is acknowledged but not dealt with.

A team is a work group in which individuals interact interdependently in order to accomplish a task. The primary characteristic of team process is synergy, which results from interdependence and the dynamics of task accomplishment grounded in effective relationship. The synergy of team interactions is quantitatively and qualitatively greater than would be the sum of the individual efforts. If the job could be better done by an individual, the job should be done alone. By setting up interpersonal dynamics that preclude interdependence, Situational Leadership may cut the leader off from a synergistic network (team) of capable and committed followers.

This researcher wonders: (a) Is "autonomous" intended to mean "unrelated"? (b) Does the ability to accomplish the task preclude a person's need for a human network? (c) Is it possible for a team to develop solely on the basis of task accomplishment? or (d) Might genuine human autonomy pave the way for genuine human interdependence?

Methodological roots of conceptual problems. The conceptual inadequacies noted in prior pages are partially produced by the methodology used by the authors: (a) The text is eclectic, interpreting convenient portions of many frameworks but lacking conceptual integration; (b) Meanings are muddled by a constricted use of terms that have much larger meanings in the literature; and (c) The humanistic psychologies that deal with full human development are both acknowledged and rejected.

The quality of the text is eclectic. The collection of materials that has been used to justify the framework lacks integration. The authors utilize pieces of first one and then another set of thought, choosing those parts that support their own material and ignoring the parts of the same thought system that raise questions about their work. They write from their own assumptions, hardly aware of the assumptions of the authors from whom they borrow. Theory or research is utilized if it supports the positions they have taken. The text contains numerous distortions that result from using one piece of a theory without considering the larger perspective in which that piece is embedded. This methodology produces a text in which:

1. The authors utilize materials from the humanistic psychologists (Chapters 2 and 3) to support their framework while they reject the usefulness of the field (p. 14-15, 67, 207, 241-242, 302). Personality is seen as both the sum of habit patterns (p. 28) and as the balance of the three Transactional Analysis categories (p. 70). (Transactional Analysis is Freudian in rootage and assumes both affect and subconscious, concepts which are "written out" of the text.) While effectively denying the subconscious, the Johari Window is used to advocate "organizationally relevant" disclosure (p. 241-245). If a person is only the sum of habit patterns (Skinner), how can one assume the ego (Berne)? Is the work of Carl Rogers in counseling (p. 243) supportive of this model?

2. In dealing with motivation and organizational leadership, Hersey and Blanchard use portions of several humanistic frameworks: achievement motivation from McClelland, interpersonal relationships on the job from Mayo, self- actualization from Maslow, humanistic values from Argyris, hygiene factors from Herzberg, System 4 from Likert, "I'm OK, You're OK" from Berne, and Theory Y from McGregor. It is not clear to this researcher that the assumptions on which these frameworks are developed are consistent with Situational Leadership.

3. Maslow's "self- actualization," a primary concept of Situational Leadership, is interpreted as the individual's growth toward autonomy rooted in task accomplishment.

Self- actualizing people provide their own socio- emotional support through task accomplishment (p. 300). The text reinterprets social and esteem needs (p. 33-36) and functionally denies the development of the self toward full human potential. Maslow (p. 28) describes the inherent human need to maximize full potential, to become all that one is capable of becoming. The conceptual framework is built on a truncated concept of maturity, the ability to accomplish the given task.

4. McClelland and Atkinson's achievement motivation is used throughout the text (p. 23, 38-40, 60-61, 157, 299, 300). The authors fail to acknowledge the other two constructs of the McClelland- Atkinson motivation framework, affiliation and power.

5. Argyris (p. 53, 55-56) states that childlike roles frustrate natural development. Throughout the framework, managerial control functions to hold subordinates in dependent roles. Subordinates escape dependency only by satisfying expectations of the manager.

6. Herzberg (p. 58-62) indicates that job enrichment thrives on employee participation. In the framework, participative management may be used with mature subordinates *if* the manager values it and chooses to do so.

7. Likert (p. 64-65) writes that widespread responsibilities produce teamwork, mutual trust, and confidence. In the framework, the manager maintains final responsibility.

This eclectic approach produces a text that is full of double messages:

1. The manager is to predict and control human behavior (p. 3, 4, 10, 14), yet human behavior is unpredictable and hard to control (p. 272).

2. The Managerial Grid is an attitudinal model that measures only the values and feelings of a manager (p. 90, 101). While Situational Leadership is a purely behavioral model, its effectiveness is attitudinal (p. 91, 110).

3. A single style of leader behavior ('one best') is unrealistic (p. 93, 103), yet four styles encompass leader behavior and are effective for all situations (Chs. 7 and 13).

4. Feedback is both good and bad. Leadership effectiveness is enhanced by receiving feedback about behavior (p. 239-240, 245), yet the manager should remain unemotional and disclose only organizationally relevant information (p. 242, 263).

5. Positive emotion is to be controlled and used only to reward progress (p. 219-220), yet the assumption is implicit that negative emotion will be expressed, i.e., "kick in the pants" (p. 140), "yells, screams, or hollers" (p. 201, 218, 228), "parent screams" (p. 216), "pounds" (p. 229), "ride you" (p. 250), "off backs; all over them" (p.258), "hassled and closely supervised" (p. 311).

6. Style reflects the leader's motivational and need structure and is hard to change (p. 139-141), yet anyone who is willing to learn has the ability to change (p. 235).

Meanings are muddled by the use of words, which have larger meanings in literature, to convey specific meanings within the framework. "Maturity" generally is used to deal with full human development; in the framework it refers to task accomplishment. "Relationship" generally is used to deal with the manner in which individuals make contact or become connected with, attend to, and interact with each other, including interpersonal (affective), verbal (cognitive), and action (behavioral) dimensions. In the framework relationship refers primarily to reinforcement and is bounded by position.

Major psychologies of full human development are ignored. The works of Jean Piaget (cognitive developmental) and Eric Erickson (intrapersonal developmental) and their schools of thought, of Lawrence Kohlberg and Carol Gilligan (moral developmental), of Daniel Levinson and Gail Sheehey (life span developmental), and of Bernice Neugarten and Douglas Kimmel (aging) would surely add perspective and depth to human maturity and give perspective to the development of human skills.

The authors systematically reject widely accepted areas of knowledge that have potential to remedy the inadequacies of their work: psychotherapy (p. 14-15, 207, 302), human relations (p. 85), and organization development (p. 290-292). What the authors want most for the Situational manager - human skills - are rendered inaccessible by their inability to consider the full body of behavioral science knowledge. By contrast, Burns states that "the work in humanistic psychology makes it possible to generalize about the leadership process across cultures and across time" (1978, p. 3).

Hersey- Blanchard speak of their methodology as a wholistic approach (Ch. 13) that is built on the similarities of a number of theories.

> ....a behavioral scientist integrates concepts and theories, the results of empirical studies from cultural anthropology, economics, political science, psychology, sociology, and social psychology. (p. 10)

They admit the limits imposed in being applied behavioral science.

> The hope is to apply behavioral science concepts in such a way as to move them from being strictly theoretical and descriptive to being more applied and prescriptive.... Applied behavioral science is not an exact science.... There are no principles or universal truths when it comes to management. All that the behavioral sciences can give you are ways to increase your behavioral batting average. (p. 10-11)

The authors suggest that much research is not understood by practitioners, and indicate that their primary method

> ...uses as its basic data the perceptions and observations made by managers - parents in the home or supervisors on the job - on a day- to- day basis in their own environments,

> rather than data gathered only by professional researchers and consultants through instrumentation, systematic observation, and interviews. (p. 149-150)

> Good theory is just common sense organized. (p. 268)

The authors describe the synthesizing methodology used in developing Situational Leadership. "Our attempt in this book has been to weave these independent viewpoints into a holistic fabric to increase significantly the usefulness of each in diagnosis and prediction... We will attempt to integrate these theories, using Situational Leadership as a *synthesizing framework* to portray their compatibilities rather than their differences" (p. 295). "The relationship of theories... [to] Situational Leadership are not necessarily absolute, direct correlations: they are integrative bench marks for practitioners to use in attempting to make better decisions for managing human resources" (p. 296). Several theories "blend easily into Situational Leadership" (p. 297). Other concepts "can also be integrated into Situational Leadership" (p. 298, 301). "Our intention has been to provide a conceptual framework that may be useful to the reader in *applying* the conclusions of the behavioral sciences. The value... is not in changing one's knowledge, but it comes when it is applied in changing one's behavior in working with people" (p. 311). "Theory is a vehicle to help people understand and share expectations in their environment so that they can gradually learn to supervise their own behavior and become responsible, self-motivated individuals" (p. 312). The authors intend a wholistic outline, to which many theories may be related, an outline that will have direct application for the practitioner.

It is questionable whether the framework (conceptual base) presented in the text is consistent with content of the Situational Leadership model (logo) and / or the reality measured by the LEAD- Self. Three examples: (a) The model espouses participation and delegation as two of the four styles. Parts of the text render participation suspect and delegation virtually impossible. (b) The framework deals with the 1-1 boss- subordinate relationship. The 12 situations of the LEAD- Self measure the boss's response to the work group. (c) The framework works from reinforcement as the primary method of relationship. Neither the LEAD- Self nor Leadership Scale- Manager Form directly measures reinforcement.

The product of this methodology is a set of material of which the reader must ask (a) whether the framework (text) is consistent with the model (logo); (b) whether the LEAD- Self instrument measures the framework and the model; and (c) whether the training methodology operationally defines the best insights of text, model, and instrument?

Summary: strengths. Situational Leadership has strengths that explain its current popularity among practitioners and some academicians:

1. It is simple, easy to learn, and easy to apply. Copeland (1973) speaks of this as "common sense credibility." It lends itself to quick short training programs with immediate application (Hersey & Keilty, 1980, p. 60). Where industry wants only to know how to get the job done, it promises success.

2. Productivity is primary; it deals with human resources in relation to task accomplishment. The manager's role in changing the task behavior of subordinates is not diluted by concerns peripheral to production, i.e., personal relationships, personal networks, or long term organizational change.

3. The situational nature of leadership is front and center. The Situational Leader, within the style recommendations, is flexible in judgments and behaviors.

4. Situational Leadership puts the manager "in charge of" what the manager "has control of" - personal awareness of personal behaviors, the reinforcements that are offered to subordinates in daily interactions, and the definitions of tasks to be accomplished.

5. It recognizes that in the real world ideal types are seldom realized, and human relationships seldom maintain a constant high. "Low relationship" for the Situational manager is low levels of reinforcement. It is not necessarily "being unfriendly."

6. The behavioral focus should facilitate more accurate perceptions on the part of all. Self- report is notorious for reflecting what the subject wishes were the case (social desirability). A more accurate picture is produced by adding the report of perceptions by others with whom the manager works and comparing the scores.

7. The basic unit of concern is "1-to-1," which is the basic unit of all human interaction and of the social fabric. This seems a reasonable place to begin. If "1-to-1" were conceived accurately, it might become the paradigm from which the full framework could be further developed.

8. The task relevant maturity of the subordinate is an important situational variable. It is strategic to production and is one place to intervene to enhance the likelihood of change.

9. Behavioral reinforcement skills can be learned, and do not require the manager to 're - form' his / her personality before using. For some persons, personality change will result from changing their behavioral reinforcement skills.

10. Within the organization, the manager stays in control, remaining accountable and therefore maintaining a role and image as a strong contributing member of the staff. Here "a boss is a boss."

11. Situational Leadership materials, in a myriad of formats, are available. Within legitimate copyright restrictions, they may be purchased and used.

12. The framework is in a growth phase. Each of the two authors is working from his unique perspective. Many dissertations are utilizing the framework for research.

Practitioners in many fields are basing training on the model. From this rich and wide usage, new insights may emerge and the model, framework, and methods may continue to develop.

Summary: where development is needed. Primary conceptual issues have emerged. Development can occur at these points:

1. The scholarship is eclectic. Integration of the full range of scholarship available will both modify and strengthen the framework.

2. Questions linger of whether any person can master and accurately use all four styles, whether all four styles are actually effective, and whether all four styles cover all life situations. Does "situational" mean replacing "one best style" with "four best styles"? Is there an alternative to the normative, prescriptive approach to leadership?

3. The concept of task relevant maturity may not be adequately formulated or assessed by the framework and available instruments. The difficulty of the task is not considered.

4. The primary construct Relationship is underdeveloped. "Reinforcement" cannot be allowed to pass for "relationship." Relationship must be able to describe the shape of the connectedness and interactions that occur between individuals and within the group. The full range of ideas in the framework (socio- emotional support, encouragement, facilitation, active listening, and feedback) must be expanded and operationally defined as interactive (two way). Relationship must be grounded in mutuality, reciprocity, and equalitarian interpersonal status. The framework needs a more complete view of human development.

5. A metaquestion, the ways in which affect and cognition interact to produce will or decision and behavior, underlies the whole framework. While there are not now apparent answers to this metaquestion, a more complete view of human development will open the door for further development and for a more adequate understanding of human motivation. Motivation has to do, not only with habit patterns and needs, but with personal linkage and belonging, with ways of conceiving, and with values and vision. The leader who begins to touch these levels within a person may exercise authentic leadership.

6. The nature of legitimate authority should be considered. Power can be understood to exist for the sake of the larger vision of what can be accomplished, rather than only for the sake of fulfilling the task specific needs of the organization. Then human development and team process may enable task accomplishment. The high level of managerial control may be replaced by more ability to involve participants in the processes and more capacity for genuine delegation. The manager may know that (s)he cannot "change behavior of people." Each person changes his / her own behavior, sometimes in response to the behavior of the person in the power position.

7. The power of the framework is lessened by other intervening situational variables. These situational variables surely include mission, power, structure, and resources (Terry, 1986). Mission especially should be taken into account. Each organization must ask itself whether the framework in its current form provides the leadership paradigm that will best allow that organization to accomplish its mission. For instance, in a given setting, is "relationship as reinforcement" effective? If participation is desired, will the model support the new employee coming into the system and facilitate the person's full involvement, motivation and personal development?

Because the situational variable of mission has not been examined, human institutions are treated as monolithic. Business, education, hospitals, the military, political parties, the government, prisons, the church, and the family are provided the same recipe for effective leadership. Until distinctions can be drawn based on mission, the situational uniqueness of each cannot be addressed. Until mission is clear, the relevance of the styles to agency specific situations will remain fuzzy or inappropriate. Children will be treated to high control when their primary developmental need is for security (p. 162). Adolescents will desire to keep the parents' rules without question despite their developmental need for independence (p. 226). How many of the identified agencies would find productive the initiations designed to accomplish the mission of the military (p. 283)?

8. Given the interpretation of relationship as reinforcement, should Situational Leadership be expected to initiate interpersonal dynamics from which team process could develop? Effective team process is grounded in effective interpersonal relationship. The nature of the human is social. Each "1-to-1" relationship is multiplied by the number of persons present to each transaction. Each person has his / her own legitimate input and pattern of synergy with each other individual and with the group. Situational Leadership will be stronger when it takes account of this larger perspective.

9. True leadership is interactive. It happens, not in the person of the leader or the person of the follower, but in the pattern of synergy between them. A leader enables the follower to freely respond in the context of a common vision and commitment to mutual goals. The response of the follower sets the climate in which leadership continues to be exercised or ceases. If leadership is conceived as this dynamic two- way purposeful process, one- way influence is a scant first step. The conceptualization of leadership must be developed to include vision, charisma, and the capacity to jointly create the desired future. Such a leader is more able to build from strength in a climate of success. In such a climate, productivity is driven by common consent and the challenge to excellence is mutually valued.

Critique, Comparison, and Summary of the Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership

Critique of Situational Leadership by Blake- Mouton

Blake- Mouton base their critique of Situational Leadership (and their defense of their own framework) on logic. *"The fundamental issue is the underlying concept formation on which each theory is built."* The appeal is to the use of Cartesian coordinates rather then Aristotelian thought processes (Blake- Mouton, 1985a, p.197-223).

They write in opposition to all generic forms of 'paternalism / maternalism.' Leadership as '9+9' (including Situational Leadership) represents a high degree of control, to which is added (or coupled) a high degree of reward for compliance (paternalism / maternalism). The leader maintains the initiative and the dominance in the working relationship. Subordinates are controlled through reward and punishment. Control weakens initiative, autonomy, and self- reliance. The two constructs Task and Relationship, or initiation of structure and consideration, are treated separately, with high amounts of each determining the style. Blake- Mouton see this as reductionist or elementalistic thinking. The leader "does" the style "to" the follower. Feedback is one- way, from the boss down. The final result of '9+9' leadership is dependency on the part of the follower. Blake- Mouton analyze research to indicate that 'paternalism / maternalism' is not consistently better than any other style (1982e, p. 42; 1982f, p. 285).

By contrast '9,9' begins with the assumption of *mutuality* between the leader and the member. High "concerns for" both "people" and "production" are combined in the act of leadership and cannot be separated within / from the consciousness / behavior of the leader. Because the member participates from the beginning, the leader does leadership "with and through" rather than "to." Leadership rests in a valid relationship "between" people engaged in a shared activity. Participation produces commitment and a climate for change. Any act of leadership will be *a function of the persons interacting* within the environment; '9,9' enables the leader to respond appropriately to the member and to situational factors.

Blake- Mouton emphasize the differences by using words such as "proactive orientation," "context of empathy, trust, respect, and openness," "mutual influence," "open participation," "shared understanding," and "commitment to implementing emergent solutions."

The most systematic statement of Blake- Mouton's position is "Resolving Contradictions Among Leadership Theories," Managerial Grid III, 1985a, p. 197-223. The argument is also made in earlier articles (Blake- Mouton, 1982e, p. 42; 1982f, p. 276-285; 1981c, p. 440-443; 1982c, p. 21-33; 1982d, p. 211).

Critique of Managerial Grid by Hersey- Blanchard

Hersey- Blanchard have spent minimal time responding to the critique by Blake- Mouton. Two articles have been published, with almost identical content (Blanchard 1982, p. 50-52; Hersey- Blanchard 1982a, p. 207-210).

Ignoring the conceptual issues raised by Blake- Mouton, they present an attitude that is open, gracious, and conciliatory.

> Few if any, management theorists have made such significant contributions to the study of management in the last 20 years as Blake and Mouton. They are truly giants in our field. For us to be the focus of their article, and be considered in the company of Fiedler, Fleishman and Reddin is a real honor. We thank them for that recognition. (1982a)

Hersey- Blanchard interpret the difference to be that between attitude and behavior. "Concern" describes attitudes or predispositions. Situational Leadership works with observed behaviors. Hersey- Blanchard state that the conflict develops when behavioral assumptions are drawn from attitudinal models. "This occurs when it is assumed that if you care about people and have positive assumptions about them, you should always treat them in the same manner" (1982a, p. 208). "While high concern for both production and people ('9,9' attitude) are basic ingredients for effective leaders, it may be appropriate for leaders to engage in a variety of behaviors as they face different problems in their environment" (Blanchard, 1982b, p. 50). The authors discuss a crisis setting in which leadership is likened to extinguishing fires. Several different methods are discussed. "We would hope that during all these times, the fire chief would have both high concern for production and high concern for people.... Thus we suggest that the Grid tends to identify appropriate attitudes and values - high concern for production and high concern for people, while Situational Leadership helps managers determine the various behaviors they can use to make effective changes in their environment."

At no point in this interchange, do Hersey- Blanchard deal with the relationship between attitude and behavior. Nor do they acknowledge the inconsistency of suggesting that the manager might operate from an attitude of "high concern for people with high concern for production" while behaving in a "high task, low relationship style."

In these articles Hersey- Blanchard respond to Blake- Mouton's research in which the fifth alternative (a '9,9' response) was added to the twelve LEAD- Self items. They note that in their own work, most successful managers choose one of the two high relationship styles; the low relationship styles seem to have a negative connotation. Hersey- Blanchard suggest that self- perception instruments tend to measure attitudinal orientation rather than actual behavior. When the LEAD- Other is used together with the LEAD- Self, there are significant increases in low relationship behavior styles, i.e., managers are perceived by subordinates to behave in low relationship ways, whether or not managers perceive themselves as behaving in low relationship ways.

The Hersey- Blanchard response ignores the fact that in the Blake- Mouton research significantly more managers chose '9,9' than chose S2 or the style designated as most appropriate for that situation.

Hersey- Blanchard conclude by affirming the value of both frameworks.

> Grid training is excellent learning experience and helps develop attitudes and values in managers that can be extremely important in their effectiveness.... Grid is a strategic approach.... No single program solves all problems. It is our belief that both the Grid and Situational Leadership, along with many others, contribute in helping managers to be more effective and improve productivity and contributions to quality of life. (Blanchard, 1982a, p. 52)

Hersey- Blanchard do not address the issues of concept formation that are at the heart of the Blake- Mouton position. Instead, they choose to assume that research has shown there is no one best style (Hersey- Blanchard, 1981, p. 38, footnotes 10, 11).

The question of Hersey- Blanchard's posture toward Blake- Mouton can also be assessed by examining the text of Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 4th Ed. (1982b). The Managerial Grid is introduced on pages 89-91 and is treated as a popularization of the concepts generated in the Ohio State studies; the two models are merged in a diagram (p. 91). Several authors (Barnard, Bennis, Likert) are cited to support the notion that both high initiating structure and high consideration are theoretically ideal leader behavior. They then suggest that a single ideal or normative leader behavior is unrealistic and move toward adaptive or contingency models. Blake, Shepard, and Mouton are briefly cited (p. 287) for an approach to conflict based in attitudinal sets toward intergroup conflict.

Hersey- Blanchard argue for a behavioral rather than an attitudinal model (p. 101-103), point out the inadequacies of a human relations model (p. 85), speak of the inappropriateness of psychotherapy (p. 207), and criticize organizational development for its interpersonal focus (p.290-292). They suggest the use of structured directive strategies.

Response to the Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership in the Literature

Scholars have not published widely around the two frameworks. The apparent sameness is deceptive and the differences are not easy to untangle. One or the other framework may be chosen for classroom use; the two frameworks are widely used in training. This researcher has found no published effort at systematic comparison or critique. Few faculty base research on either of the frameworks. Most research utilizing the frameworks is done by graduate students at the dissertation level. Much of this work treats the chosen framework uncritically.

Craig Dreilinger, Richard McElheny, Dan Rice, and Bruce Robinson. Dreilinger and associates (1982b, 1982a, 1983) argue that the importance of leadership styles has been vastly over emphasized, and that techniques associated with leadership style training often don't translate to improvements in employee productivity and profitability (p. 69). Their own research indicates that organizational practices have a more profound impact on employee productivity than does any other factor. They found organizational practices to be the most important factors affecting employee performance and enabling managers to manage effectively (p. 73). They suggest that developing appropriate organizational practices, such as clearer goals, objectives, and standards, might eliminate the felt need for management training and significantly reduce the need for some technical / professional training. They conclude, "Leadership style training may not be a myth, but it is certainly misdirected" (p. 58).

Leadership style training would have included some skill training in the management problems with which they worked and would not have precluded any of the diagnosis and structural redesign that they performed. Such training might have enhanced the quality of interaction among agency staff during the process that Dreilinger, et al, conducted. Their study was done within a government agency in Washington, D. C.; the problems that they address may be most acute in such bureaucratic agencies.

Don Edward Beck. Beck (1982) suggests that the primary reason for the intense competitiveness between the Grid and Situationalism is because they are so much alike.

> Both are latter-day revelations of the classic Ohio State Leadership Studies; both compete for the same marketplace; both view the human brain as a tabula rasa on which one can make '9,9' or S2 etchings; both float in Toffler's "second wave"; and both use a similar research design and often commit post hoc fallacies by claiming that their respective programs were the "single cause" that produced a specific effect in managerial behavior or productivity management.
>
> Both are "right" in the sense that their systems are the end-products of the philosophical presuppositions and world views of each of the authors. Both are "right'" in that their conclusions are consistent with the world views of various research populations and, in many cases, "fit" the problems that respective clients confront.
>
> They are both "wrong," however, when they attempt to cover the entire psychological or managerial landscape with their formulae - or claim that the world, both now and in the future, will fit within their quadrants. (1982, p. 77ff)

Beck notes that they articulate common themes, use the same shopping list of major theorists to support their claims, and address some of the same problems in management and organizational life. Each is sure that their approach embodies the concerns of the other. Beck identifies four similarities between the two approaches:

> 1. Both are theoretical models. They approximate what they would like the world to be like; they are not the world.
>
> 2. Both have constructed geometric maps based on quantification, objectivism, and number gathering data dumps that use self- reporting pencil- and- paper instrumentation.
>
> 3. Both take great delight in forcing other theoretical viewpoints into their quadrants to "piggyback" onto the validity of the other major theoretical viewpoints.
>
> 4. Both... are essentially attitudinal / behavioral models that deal only with the surface of human activity.... Neither considers such influences as brain maps and programs, belief structures or value systems, or world views.... Both define the limits of human maturity within the boundaries of their own frameworks. (1982, p. 77ff)

Beck suggests that the mechanistic Newtonian based paradigm, on which the Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership are based, is inadequate to the needs of our emerging culture. He points toward a more wholistic paradigm, "Living Systems." He identifies two tributaries that feed the main current of new paradigm thought, the explosion of research and theorizing in neurological systems of the brain and systemic thinking from the field of social psychology. He predicts that the Newtonian based paradigm will be replaced by the emerging wholistic systems paradigm.

> If the world view is holistic, the brain will be seen as an organic / holistic mosaic influx with constantly changing gestalts; psychology will fuse biological and sociological models that define a human being as a total living system; organizations will be seen as

> synergistic processes in constant motion with the flow of the arrangement of people determined by the flow of the function; training and development will be closely integrated into the basic organizational or societal processes and tuned to the natural way and time that different people "learn" and "develop" (1982, p. 80).

Beck's Living Systems approach would account for all factors within a given situation - personal, social, technical, structural, and environmental. Within this model all subsystems affect each other; organizations are the product of a delicate balance of a number of interlocking and interdependent subsystems. A slight change in any subsystem might result in a gestalt- like shift in the entire network. Living Systems models show these qualities:

> 1. Organizations are seen as dynamic moving pictures where the internal and external scenes are constantly changing.
>
> 2. The focus is more on the selection and placement of people than their "training and development."
>
> 3. The importance of implementing systems gets more emphasis than dealing with personality traits or types.
>
> 4. The actual work to be done or function to be served comprises the driving force for determining the appropriate organizational design or motivational strategy.
>
> 5. Change happens naturally. "Planning change" is more a manipulative fiction than a practical reality.
>
> 6. There are times and situations involving people and nature's flow where there is nothing to do but marvel at the process.
>
> 7. No two people, organizations, situations, or cultures are alike. Each circumstance is in constant motion along or within maps, landscapes, and tapestries (p. 81-82).

Beck concludes that the issues regarding the Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership go beyond the relative strengths or weaknesses of the two frameworks. When perceived against the backdrop of changing paradigms, the issues that divide them appear to be inconsequential. The two frameworks will be useful as long as the assumptions within each "fit" the context in which the framework is applied.

> But, like "wineskins" that once carried the "new wine" for a generation of training and development practitioners, they too will become "old wineskins" and no amount of patching up or improved marketing will equip them for the "new wine" that will come from "grapes already ripening on the vines." (p. 83)

Summary Critique and Comparison of Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership

So what of the comparison of two well developed and widely used frameworks for training in leadership style? The constructs, called by what ever names and operationally defined to fit the assumptions of the authors, are indeed primary. Task and Maintenance, production and people, task and relationship - are part and parcel of the human scene. The constructs are rooted in basic capacities of the person: cognition and affect, left brain and right brain, mastery and self- esteem, intent and being. They are indigenous to, but not limited to, the leadership process; they are reflected in the consciousness of each individual and are components of each transaction or relationship between persons. The balance of these primary constructs are central to the conceptualization of any human system.

Both sets of authors make claims for relevance of their frameworks to the human enterprise. They want us to consider their insights wherever two or more persons interact or attempt to influence each other: leadership training, organization development, classroom teaching, settings of nonformal education, marriage and parenthood education, the church, political organizations, the government, the military.

While these two frameworks deal with the same realities, they operate from very different assumptions, define the constructs differently, and treat the styles in very different ways! The content of the two frameworks is contrasted in Figure 3, p. 86-89.

The two frameworks are distinctive; each is genuinely different. From different assumptions, the constructs are defined differently and are juxtaposed differently. The styles produced by the four quadrants, the interpersonal dynamics generated by the styles, and the anticipated outputs are different. While accomplishment of agency task is central to both, the Managerial Grid shapes the entire organization and Situational Leadership shapes the 1-1 boss- subordinate dyad.

The nature of relationship and the way relationship influences task accomplishment are a primary source of difference between the two frameworks. Is relationship mutual and reciprocal, or is relationship the tool of the manager for calling forth task accomplishment? Will either of the frameworks produce a leadership style that initiates dynamics from which team process might develop? The Managerial Grid claims team process as the primary output, but Grid instruments are not available for research. Situational Leadership claims "1 - 1" task accomplishment as the primary output; many expect that effective teamwork will result. How does the nature of relationship effect the ability of the follower to accomplish a task and / or to function synergistically with a group of co- workers? Will relationship, as operationally defined as by Hersey- Blanchard, generate the interpersonal dynamics from which synergistic team relationships could develop?

	Managerial Grid	Situational Leadership
Date of origin	1964.	1967.
Peak	1970's: reform of institutions.	1980's: free market ethics, corporate culture.
Purpose	High system performance: develop organization through teambuilding. Long term organizational health and productivity.	High individual performance: enable manager to delegate task to mature subordinate. Immediate task accomplishment.
Leadership definition	Process (2 or more persons) of establishing direction while achieving coordination.	Process of influencing individual or group activity toward goal accomplishment in a setting; behavior pattern of the manager as perceived by others.
Focus	Style of manager in relation to person and group; synergistic teamwork.	Style of manager in relation to person (1-1); individual productivity. Group=multiples of one.
Constructs	Concern for production: Concern=assumptions. Production=what staff is hired to accomplish.	Task behavior: sets goals, organizes work, sets time lines, provides directions, requires reporting.
	'Mission' is formative.	'Mission' not a situational constraint.
	Concern for people: Concern=assumptions. People=all persons with and through whom results are achieved.	Relationship behavior: Positive reinforcement + socioemotional support: giving support, communicating, facilitating interactions, active listening, providing feedback.

	Relationships built on equality, reciprocity.	Relationships limited by manager's power: position, personal.
Characteristics of Constructs	Interactive, interrelated and interdependent, but uncorrelated.	Independent.
	Combinatorial, multiplicative ('9,9'): combination forms qualitatively different reality.	Additive ('9+9'): different amounts of separate constructs applied to situation.
	Linear.	Curvilinear.
Characteristics of Frameworks	Systemic, comprehensive. Referenced to literature, 'scientific'; based on applied behavioral science. Phenomenological: attitude produces behavior.	Situational, specific. Eclectic use of literature; based on applied behavioral science. Behavioral: behavior reveals values.
	Utilizes humanistic psychology (Erik Erickson, etc).	Utilizes behavioral psychology (B. F. Skinner, etc.).
	Principled: Versatile manager; behavior based on principles (in relation to person and production). Principles are constant; application of principles varies with situation. Principles produce predictable behavior that builds trust.	Situational: Flexible manager; effective manager uses all styles; chooses style based on maturity of subordinate and situational constraints.
	Mutual trust and respect result from sound behavior.	Manager trusts subordinate (Q4) to accomplish task.
	Authoritative: principles are "given."	Authoritarian: boss retains final control, utilizing position power.

	Interpersonal communication is central.	Communication=verbal messages. Bias against affect.
Framework Content	Seeks development of whole person; involvement is key to personal growth.	Seeks development of task specific maturity(skill); self-actualization only through achievement.
	Initial participation generates involvement, ownership, and commitment to excellence.	Participation relative to task-relevant maturity at the discretion of manager.
	Participation = a human right.	Participation = a privilege, if manager chooses; participation primarily through MBO.
	Proactive participation and fulfillment = motivation through synergy and excellence.	Motivation through having goal directed needs met; achievement is a need.
	Manager directs through mutual agreement regarding purpose.	Manager schedules, coordinates, controls and disciplines. Human skill = directing, changing, controlling behavior.
	Clear challenging goals are mutually set.	Goals are given by manager; negotiable in Q3, Q4.
	Decisions shared by persons who share responsibility for outcomes; validity of consensus.	Decision processes controlled by boss who is paid to carry this responsibility.
	Delegation produces widely shared responsibility.	Delegation in Q4: subordinate does task without boss "looking over shoulder."
	Power and authority are delegated.	Task is delegated; boss is accountable.
	Power used to link people to production.	Power used to control subordinate for production.

Self-control of behavior based in personal stake in productivity.	Manager is responsible for directing, changing and controlling behavior.
Person as "actor."	Person as "reactor."
Critique (formative and summative, from boss and peers) provides feedback regarding goals and personal effectiveness.	Feedback from boss limited to quality of performance.
Conflict resolved through confronting causes.	(Recognizes only inter-group conflict.)
Reward system based on merit.	Reinforcement to learn task is specified reward .
Initiatives from all members.	Initiatives from manager.
Member contributes input as full member of team.	Subordinate performs task to satisfaction of manager.
Group synergy through team process; persons become interdependent through common stake in organizational purpose.	One-to-one work relationship between boss and subordinate becomes autonomous task accomplishment by subordinate.
Strategic change through planned development: real change is change in organizational culture.	Change is given: diagnose problem, direct response / or unfreeze, change, refreeze.
Strength: synergistic team process; high productivity with maximum development and utilization of all human resources.	Strength: task accomplishment built on individual task maturity and personal autonomy and continuing supervisory role of manager.

Figure 3. Comparison of Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership.

The work by Burns (1978) has launched a fresh paradigm for understanding leadership as transactional or transformational. Situational Leadership clearly is transactional. Bass (1985) established contingent reward as a primary factor of transactional leadership (p. 123ff, 128, 198, 210, 224, 227, 229) and identified the One Minute Manager as prescribing this approach (p. 210). The Managerial Grid is transactional in focusing on organizational productivity and development rather than actualization of follower values, aspirations, and motives. The Grid would seem more likely to produce individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation, both factors contributing to transformational leadership. Whether any act of leadership finally becomes transformational depends upon the response of the followers. In this sense, there is no guarantee that either framework will produce transformation. As transformation becomes a primary construct of leadership research, the study of patterns of leader- follower interaction, including the construct Relationship, will move to the fore.

Does the new paradigm nullify the importance of work based on the balance of Task and Maintenance? No. Transactional and transformational identify final outcomes - accomplishing the work of the group or bringing about change (personal, group, institutional, or social). Task and Maintenance are macro constructs, indigenous to all settings; the balance of Task and Maintenance set the dynamics through which transactional and transformational outcomes are achieved.

The two frameworks can be understood through the Terry model (1986). Situational Leadership is situational theory, accomplishing the task in the situation. The Managerial Grid is organizational theory, using a human resources approach to develop the total organization. Both deal primarily with power, but in quite different ways. Task and Maintenance in group process (like "responsibility and authenticity" in ethics, "law and grace" in theology, "form and dynamic" in philosophy, and "cognition and affect" in psychology) are fundamental analytic categories. Situational Leadership is amoral, i.e., does not deal with ethical dimensions of leadership. Managerial Grid is based on principles and relationships of reciprocity and mutuality; it would be classified with ethical leadership. Whether either of the frameworks "empowers human beings to claim ultimate fulfillment" is questionable.

Concluding comments. The two frameworks are very different. Both contain valid insights and have limits. Both present ideal types (normative models). "Effectiveness" and '9,9' are not ends in themselves but means to the end of productivity. Each produces an outcome; neither is final truth. The results obtained with each will be quite different.

The world gives us no perfect settings in which to use the models. Life is situational;

most of it occurs somewhere between the ideal type and the problem that needs attention. Valid theory provides a template against which daily decisions can be weighed. The issues that emerge as the frameworks are considered side- by- side are real and deserve serious attention.

So then, what is to be done? A practitioner must choose a framework for use based on the immediate and long term goals to be accomplished. The question is less "Which is right?" than "Which does what best here?" The choice must take into account whether the desired output is "1 - 1" productivity or the productivity of synergistic team process. The choice must also take into account the availability of training or knowledge, needs of the setting, the nature, mission, and values of the organization, the relevance of the theory to requirements of the leadership role, personal values of the leader, and ability of the leader to learn, model and practice the framework.

With carefully conceived empirical studies, a researcher may contribute to the development of theory that has greater validity and reliability and that is relevant to the mission of the population. The issues that emerge here deserve exploration.

Chapter Summary

Primary constructs Task and Maintenance are indigenous to a large body of literature dealing with human development and human systems, including leadership and team process. Two frameworks, Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership, have utilized these constructs to train for leadership style. The Managerial Grid promises team process if the leadership style is a combination of "high concern for production" with "high concern for persons." Situational Leadership recommends the use of four styles based on the maturity of the follower and identifies "1 - 1" task accomplishment as its outcome. While many expect Situational Leadership to produce teamwork, it is not evident that the interpersonal dynamics generated by these four styles can be expected to culminate in synergistic team process. Although the frameworks seem similar at first glance, they are distinctly different. The analysis of the two frameworks compares very different approaches to relationship between a leader and a follower. Fulk and Cummings (1984) tap the work of Watzlawick and colleagues (1967) to suggest that relationship is "meta" to all else, setting the context within which leadership occurs and enabling the accomplishment of task. The question of the construct validity of the Relationship construct of Situational Leadership is crucial.

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APPENDIX

Scientific Methods, Inc.
BOX 195, AUSTIN, TEXAS 78767 ■ 512—477-5781 ■ CABLE: GRID TELEX 776443

May 28, 1985

Ms. Faye Caskey
Coordinator In-Service Education
Home Economics Education
University of Minnesota
325 Vocational and Technical
Education Building
1954 Buford Avenue
St. Paul, Minnesota 55108

Dear Ms. Caskey:

Your letters of May 15 and May 21 addressed to Drs. Blake and Mouton have been forwarded to me for reply.

I am pleased to send you the literature you requested regarding publications and promotional material. However, our Grid instruments are not available for use outside the context of the Seminar. Let me explain why.

First, let me give you a little background about our activities and materials. This company was founded as a result of the development of the Managerial Grid, on which our activities and products are based. Several years ago, the company found it necessary to establish a firm policy prohibiting us from granting permission to reproduce sections of The Managerial Grid book or our training instruments. This policy was established particularly because of the instrument in Chapter One of the book. This instrument and others like it make up the copyrighted Seminar design which we use in conducting week-long Grid Seminars throughout the world. They are conducted both publicly and within organizations, and they include a wide variety of activities based on Grid instruments.

While this policy would generally prohibit us from granting you permission to use this material as you suggest, over and above that I should explain briefly how we see the best use of these measurements of managerial styles or attitudes. Although they have been tested for construct, face, and prediction validity and have been found to have high validity on all these counts, this is somewhat irrelevant since they are purely training instruments, applied to enable a manager to explore his own values and styles, and were never intended for use in testing or data gathering. Each is but a related part of the overall training design.

On experimenting with these instruments, we have found that their use outside the Seminar context has little meaning for users. Persons completing the instrument gain little of personal value, and if they attend a Grid Seminar at a later date, the impact of the experience is lost. As for the administrator, our research has shown over and over again that when these instruments are administered before training, those completing them as untrained observers of themselves slant their responses toward an ideal. At the end of the training week, after thay have explored Grid theory and come to understanding it in depth, the same participants complete the instruments and results show a high correlation between their description of themselves and those of others who know them.

I hope this explanation is helpful. Please let me know if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Artie Stockton

(Mrs.) Artie Stockton

Enclosures

Representatives in NEW YORK • PITTSBURGH • SOUTH CAROLINA • TENNESSEE • AUSTRALIA • AUSTRIA • CANADA • BELGIUM
BRAZIL • ENGLAND • FINLAND • JAPAN • KUWAIT • MEXICO • THE NETHERLANDS • NORWAY • PAKISTAN • PHILIPPINES
SOUTH AFRICA • URUGUAY • VENEZUELA • WEST GERMANY
Grid Seminars and services also available in Danish, Dutch, Finnish, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Norwegian, Portuguese, and Spanish

The only published standardization data available for the LEAD- Self is found in the following quote. It is printed both in Management of Organizational Behavior, 4th Ed. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p.105) and Greene, John F. (1980).

> The LEAD- Self Manual, written by John F. Greene, contains a discussion of the Situational Leadership Model, format of the scale, characteristics of ipsative measures, standardization procedures, item derivation and selection, estimates of reliability, logical validity, empirical validity, types of scores, and normative information. Administration and scoring procedures are also included.
>
> The LEAD- Self was standardized on the responses of two hundred sixty-four managers constituting a North American sample. The managers ranged in age from twenty-one to sixty-four; 30 percent were at the entry level of management; 55 percent were middle managers; 14 percent were at the high level of management. The twelve-item validities for the adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52, and ten of the twelve coefficients (83 percent) were .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. Each response option met the operationally defined criterion of less than 80 percent with respect to selection frequency. The stability of the LEAD- Self was moderately strong. In two administrations across a six-week interval, 75 percent of the managers maintained their dominant style and 71 percent maintained their alternate style. The contingency coefficients were both .71 and each was significant (p .01). The correlation for the adaptability scores was .69 (p .01). The LEAD- Self scores remained relatively stable across time, and the user may rely on the results as consistent measures.
>
> The logical validity of the scale was clearly established. Face validity was based on a review of the items, and content validity emanated from the procedures used to create the original set of items.
>
> Several empirical validity studies were conducted. As hypothesized, correlations with the demographic/organismic variables of sex, age, years of experience, degree and management level were generally low, indicating the relative independence of the scales with respect to these variables. Satisfactory results were reported supporting the four style dimensions of the scale using a modified approach to factor structure. In forty-six of the forty-eight item options (96 percent), the expected relationship was found. In another study, a significant correlation of .67 was found between the adaptability scores of the managers and the independent ratings of their supervisors. Based on these findings, the LEAD- Self is deemed to be an empirically sound instrument. Copies of the LEAD- Self Manual may be obtained through the Center for Leadership Studies, Escondido, California.